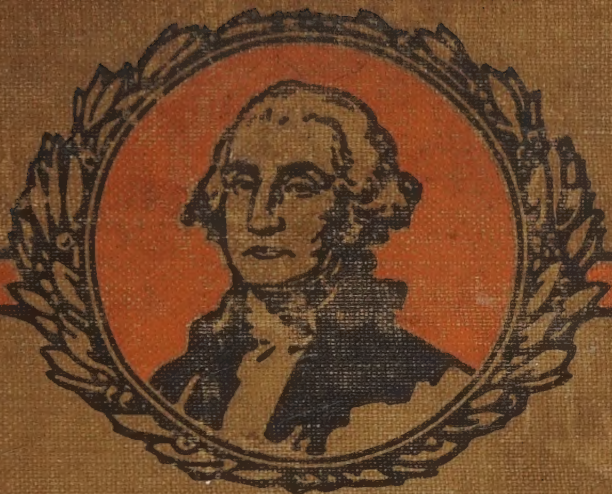




THE
AMERICAN
PEOPLE
AND
NATION

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SIGNING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

From a painting by Colonel John Trumbull, made soon after 1817

THE AMERICAN PEOPLE AND NATION

BY

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TO OUR PARENTS
WHO WISHED US
TO BECOME EDUCATED AMERICAN CITIZENS
AND
TO OUR CHILDREN
AND THE CHILDREN OF AMERICA
TO WHOM WE PASS THE TORCH OF AMBITION



ABOUT THE BOOK AS A WHOLE

This book is the product of years of training, experience, and labor on the part of its authors. It is a textbook in American history for pupils in the upper-elementary and junior-high-school grades. As the title suggests, it aims to show pupils in these grades a picture of the life that the American people have lived and at the same time to tell the story of the American nation in the making. To accomplish these two objectives a combination of the chronological and topical methods of organization has been used. The large divisions are arranged in chronological order. Within each of the large divisions the study units are treated as topics. The material comprised in each study unit is presented topically. Care has been taken to present the topics in a provocative, or challenging, form, thus encouraging the student to attack the material from the problematic angle, but at the same time leaving him free to organize the problem in his own manner.

The General Organization. The book has no divisions called parts or chapters. Instead of these much-used terms, "Divisions" and "Units" and "Topics" have been employed. The whole story is divided into eight chronological divisions, each division into three or more units, each unit into two or more topics, and each topic into a number of headings. It is believed that with such a framework, consistently used throughout the book, the student will be able always to keep his bearings and to see his way clearly through the story.

The Forewords and Frontispieces. Another device to aid the student in taking the first step in approaching a body of material to be assimilated is the use made of the forewords and frontispieces. There is a foreword for the book as a whole, a foreword for each division, and a foreword for each unit. There are also frontispieces (one for the book as a whole and one for each division). The frontispieces and the forewords

are both essential parts of the book, because they furnish stimuli needed to create mental attitudes necessary to the early stages of the learning process.

The Libraries and Tables of Contents. Two other devices are employed to assist the student in gaining his first general impression of the field as a whole and of each division of the field. One of these is the reference and story-book libraries for the entire field and for each division. In glancing over the titles of the books in the two libraries at the beginning of a division, the student will get a general notion of the kinds of material that are available for the mastery of the division as a whole or some of its units.

The other device is the table of contents for the book as a whole and for each division. The general framework for the intellectual structure that the student is to build is supplied by these tables of contents. They are guidance outlines which show him the chief landmarks in the road over which he is to travel. With the libraries and the tables of contents at his command he is well equipped to enter the next stage of the learning process. Here he seeks details which illustrate and clarify the generalizations which have been set before him.

Study for Mastery. In reaching the mastery stage of any particular division the student is expected to read and reread the material presented by the authors. The first reading ought to be done by units. Later the units ought to be read by topics, and finally the topics by headings. By such a procedure a clear-cut and well-organized body of material can be built up in the student's mind. When the time comes to read by topics, the projects and activities which follow each topic ought to be introduced. Before leaving a division the exercises found at the close ought to be completed. These are standards of attainment to be reached before leaving a division. They are an aid to the student in his final step of rethinking the material of the division in terms of some of its important phases.

Optional Use of the Libraries and how they were Compiled. The library equipment which the main body of the book contains is an integral part of it. While the text may be used

successfully without a single book suggested in the libraries, some or all of these books ought to be accessible if possible. Their appearance at the beginning of each division should not deter anyone from using the text; for even if they are not read at all, the mere knowledge of their existence is worth something. This is especially true because of the objective rule applied in selecting the titles. The method of procedure in compiling them was as follows: first, a list which comprised about three thousand titles was made from books suggested in graded lists found in textbooks and courses of study in American history for Grades VII and VIII — lists especially compiled by public libraries, by state departments of education, and by the American Library Association. From this long roll of possible books a shorter list was made on the basis of frequency of mention. Provided with this shorter list, one of the authors visited the juvenile department of four large libraries. With the aid of the librarians in these departments he was able to check actual demand for each book against the other methods that had given it its place on the list. When the final lists were made up in this manner, they were checked against those found in *Children's Reading*, by Terman and Lima; *Winnetka Graded Book List*, by Washburn and Vogel; and *Graded List of Books for Children*, by the Elementary School Library Committee of the National Education Association.

The Projects and Activities. The projects and activities are not of the question-and-answer type, but of the thinking-and-doing type. They are of three kinds: those that may be done with no material other than that furnished by the text, those that require material outside the text, and those for which material is given in the exercises themselves. A close relation between the projects and activities and the content of the topic they follow is always maintained. An effort has been made to suggest worth-while things which children can actually do, and for the doing of which the material is at hand. The suggested readings are an exception. They have been included to encourage wide and definite reading on the part of those who have access to the books suggested.

Provisions for Concreteness, Objectivity, and Reality. In order to make the presentation concrete, objective, and real, the authors have employed all the means at their command. When possible, imagery-suggesting words have been used instead of abstract terms; descriptions have been made as vivid and real as possible. Illustrations have been selected that aim to do more than merely adorn: they play their part in making the past of our country actual and real. The maps, charts, graphs, and other concrete aids have all been included with a view to assisting the student in the process of assimilating the material in the text and also that which he may bring in from other sources.

The Appendixes. Finally, it should be said that the appendixes are likewise an important part of the text. Containing as they do the two most important documents in the history of our nation and many interesting facts about each state and each president, they are not unimportant although they appear where they do. References to both the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States are made again and again in the body of the text. By this repeated reference to them, their importance is held before the student. From the discussion of its adoption to the close of the book the Constitution is held to be the supreme law of the land, worthy of the support and respect of all loyal Americans.

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FOREWORD

If we could have lived from 1492 to the present day and could have watched the growth of the United States, we should have seen a marvelous story unfold before our eyes.

In 1492 we should have seen the Atlantic shore with no cities or dwellings to break the forest which bordered it. We should have seen three small shiploads of men sail toward it, and many an expedition explore it. Then we should have seen people come to live on these shores ; and we should have watched them build their houses, till the soil, push back the Indians, cut down the forests, move westward to the interior, fight wars for their country, found cities, cut roads through the woods and across the plains, throw bridges over the great rivers, climb the Western mountains, run railways to the Pacific coast, and start schools and factories and churches and newspapers. And we should have watched our grandfathers and our fathers and at last ourselves come into the story and become a part of American history.

In the following pages we shall watch the stream of events from the time when America was a great continent covered with trees and grassy plains, and inhabited by Indians, to the time when we ourselves became a part of the United States and began to have a share in its history.

TWO TWELVE-BOOK LIBRARIES

I. A CLASSROOM REFERENCE LIBRARY

Below are twelve books which contain useful and interesting accounts of persons, things, events, and movements connected with the history of our country. They contain material on every one of the eight divisions of this book. Some of them may well be in constant use while a study of each division is being made. Many of them are referred to repeatedly throughout this book.

1. *Steps in the Expansion of Our Country*, by O. P. Austin. D. Appleton and Company, 1903.

An excellent treatment of the growth of the United States along many lines; contains many useful maps.

2. *The Story of Cotton and the Development of the Cotton States*, by E. C. Brooks. Rand McNally & Company, 1911.

Contains material on the coming of the factory to America, how cotton changed the South, life and activities in the South just before the Civil War, and other topics of interest and importance. Many illustrations.

3. *The Story of Corn and the Westward Migration*, by E. C. Brooks. Rand McNally & Company, 1916.

Good accounts of the opening and the settling of the great corn country; of steamboats, canals, railroads; of the last American frontier; and of a number of other important topics. Contains several excellent pictures and a few maps.

4. *Romance of American Expansion*, by H. Addington Bruce. Moffat, Yard and Company, 1909.

An account of the territorial development of the United States. Easy to read. Contains a few good pictures.

5. *America First — One Hundred Stories from Our History*, by L. B. Evans. Milton Bradley Company, 1920.

Interesting and well-told stories covering our history from Leif the Lucky to the exploits of Sergeant York. Stories that one wants to read again and again. A few valuable illustrations.

6. *Real Stories from Our History*, by John T. Faris. Ginn and Company, 1916.

Forty-three stories which give the reader a sense of reality. Many extracts from letters, journals, diaries, and personal accounts from the pens of those who took part in the events they narrate. Excellent illustrations.

7. *The Pathbreakers from River to Ocean*, by Grace R. Hebard. The University Publishing Company, 1912.

The story of the great West from the time of Coronado. Interesting accounts of early explorers, fur-traders, great trails, missions, gold discoveries, cowboys, and railroads. Many first-class pictures and a few good maps.

8. *The Story of the United States*, by Marie L. Herdman. Frederick A. Stokes Company, 1916.

A straightforward story of the rise and growth of the United States. Contains twelve full-page illustrations in color.

9. *Our Presidents*, by James Morgan. The Macmillan Company, 1924.

Fresh, interesting, and somewhat gossipy accounts of our presidents.

10. *The Story of Agriculture in the United States*, by A. H. Sanford. D. C. Heath & Co., 1916.

An enlivened and interesting story of an important phase of our history. Contains material on such subjects as Indians, farmers, the first farmers of Virginia, colonial agriculture, pioneer farms in the West, the cotton kingdom, the ranch and ranch life, and the age of machinery. Numerous maps and illustrations.

11. *The Expansion of the American People*, by E. E. Sparks. Scott, Foresman and Company, 1900.

A one-volume history of the American people, emphasizing their social, industrial, educational, religious, and territorial expansion. Many illustrations and maps.

12. *The Making of America*, by Grace Vollintine. Ginn and Company, 1925.

The central theme of this book is the story of those Western waves of migration after the Revolutionary War which brought about the early settlements from the western slopes of the Allegheny Mountains to the Pacific slope.

II. A CLASSROOM READING LIBRARY

The twelve books below will furnish reading matter unlike that in the books of a classroom reference library. They contain exciting, interesting, and well-told stories and tales connected with the history of our country. Each of the

books may be read entire or may be used from time to time as you progress through your text. How many on the list have you read?

1. *Broad Stripes and Bright Stars*, by Carolyn S. Bailey. Milton Bradley Company, 1919.

Twenty-one stories presenting in vivid panorama the history of the American people. Each story has a central character from history. A few useful illustrations.

2. *Wonderful Escapes by Americans*, by W. S. Booth. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1913.

Narratives of many phases of life in the United States since 1759. The stories are true and very appealing. They are first-hand accounts of many exciting incidents. Do not miss reading them.

3. *The Young Folks' Book of Discovery*, by T. C. Bridges. Little, Brown & Company, 1925.

Thirty-five interesting chapters on discovery and exploration from earliest times to 1912. A fresh treatment of a fascinating subject.

4. *Peeps at History — America*, by John Finnemore. Adam and Charles Black, 1912.

A little book which touches only the high spots of our history, but treats them interestingly.

5. *Historic Adventures — Tales from American History*, by Rupert S. Holland. George W. Jacobs & Co., 1913.

Fifteen accounts of thrilling historic adventures, such as the journey of Lewis and Clark, the winning of Oregon, and the golden days of '49. Eight full-page illustrations.

6. *America*, by G. P. Knapp. Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1924.

A non-textbook treatment of our history from the discovery of America to the present time.

7. *Highlights of History*, by J. Carroll Mansfield. The Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1925.

A history of our country from 1492 to 1763 in picture and story. Another volume, dealing with our history since 1763, is to appear. Watch for it.

8. *The Story of the United States*, by H. E. Marshall. George H. Doran Company, 1917.

Stories of explorers, pioneers, settlers, and events connected with our country's history. Valuable to use in connection with your study of most of the divisions of this text.

9. *Hero Tales from American History*, by Theodore Roosevelt and H. C. Lodge. The Century Co., 1895 and 1922.

Stories of Americans who knew how to live and how to die. Covers our history from the time of Washington to the close of the Civil War. Twenty-six stories in all. An abundance of good illustrations.

10. *Boys' Book of Border Battles*, by Edwin L. Sabin. George W. Jacobs & Co., 1920.

Interesting stories of battles on the frontier from 1754 to 1890. Eighteen in all. Contains material which is difficult to find elsewhere.

11. *American Hero Stories*, by Eva March Tappan. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1906.

Stories which deal with voyagers and explorers; the colonies of Virginia, Quebec, Plymouth, New York, and Pennsylvania; four famous pioneers; and war times. Covers the period from Columbus to the end of the Civil War. Many good pictures.

12. *The Story of Our Constitution*, by Eva March Tappan. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., 1922.

Twelve interesting chapters on the Constitution of the United States. You will want to read all this book after reading the first chapter.

THE AMERICAN PEOPLE AND NATION

DIVISION ONE

DISCOVERY, EXPLORATION, AND CONQUEST

FOREWORD

Present-day explorers of the icy Arctic regions or of torrid central Africa or of the towering Himalayas make careful plans for their own safety and the safety of those who accompany them on their adventure. Before starting they read all that has been written by other explorers who have braved these dangers. They try to find out how to avoid accidents; to learn what kinds of food and clothing and what weapons and medicines to take with them. In every way possible they learn about the mistakes others have made and try to avoid these errors.

When the first explorers came from Europe to America, how much of this careful planning could they do? Could they read books written by men who had gone before? Did any doctors know what diseases might be met and what to do about them? Could they take food enough to guard against the danger of starvation?

Or did the early explorers plunge into an unknown country with unknown dangers trusting to courage and skill to come out alive? It takes brave men to do all that. Besides, why should anybody want to do such dangerous things? If you imagine yourself as being one of the explorers, you can find out the answer to the most important question: What did the explorers do, and why?



THE LANDING OF COLUMBUS

As imagined by the artist N. C. Wyeth. No picture of Columbus was made during his lifetime

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TWO TWELVE-BOOK LIBRARIES

I. A DAY-BY-DAY REFERENCE LIBRARY

Here are twelve books which give interesting accounts of events that occurred and of people who lived during the time covered by Division One. Make them your companions while you are studying this division. Are you already familiar with any of them? Can you add to the list?

1. *English Voyages of Adventure and Discovery*, by Edwin M. Bacon. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Interesting narratives of English explorations and adventures from the earliest records to the establishment of the English colonies in North America. A number of good pictures.

2. *Voyages of Discovery and Exploration (1000-1682)*, edited by Francis W. Halsey. Volume I of Great Epochs in American History. Funk & Wagnalls Company.

Accounts of voyages and discoveries made by Columbus, the Cabots, Vespucci, Ponce de Leon, Balboa, Magellan, Verrazano, Cartier, De Soto, Drake, La Salle, and others.

3. *The Men Who Found America*, by F. W. Hutchinson. Barse & Hopkins.

Contains good material on Columbus, Balboa, Cortez, Pizarro, Raleigh, Hudson, Champlain, and De Soto. A few excellent colored pictures.

4. *Famous Discoverers and Explorers of America*, by Charles H. L. Johnston. The Page Company.

Accounts of the discoveries and explorations of Ericson, Columbus, Vespucci, Ponce de Leon, Balboa, Cortez, Magellan, Pizarro, De Soto, Champlain, Hudson, Marquette, and La Salle. Contains many illustrations.

5. *The World's Discoverers*, by W. H. Johnson. Little, Brown & Company.

Excellent for a full treatment of the voyages of discovery. The first three hundred and forty-five pages are devoted to discoveries before 1700; the remaining pages treat later voyages. A valuable reference book.

6. *The Story of Columbus*, by N. J. Lennes and Paul C. Phillips. J. B. Lippincott Company.

Interesting chapters on each of the four voyages of Columbus and one on his last days.

7. *The Story of Columbus and Magellan*, by T. B. Lawler. Ginn and Company.

An easy-to-read account of the Portuguese explorers, of Columbus and his discoveries, of Spanish explorations in America, and of Magellan's voyage round the world.

8. *Heroes of Discovery in America*, by Charles Morris. J. B. Lippincott Company.

From Leif the Lucky to Robert E. Peary. Two thirds of the book is devoted to the period before 1700. A good place to seek information on all the explorers and discoveries mentioned in Division One.

9. *De Soto, Marquette and La Salle*, by Mara L. Pratt. Educational Publishing Company.

A rather full treatment of the explorations of the three explorers named in the title.

10. *The Quest of the Western World*, by Francis Rolt-Wheeler. George H. Doran Company.

"The Downfall of Columbus," "The Discovery of South America," "The English Privateers," "The Pacific Coast Explorations," and "French Sailormen and Protestants" are the titles of some of the chapters. Twenty-three excellent pictures and a few good maps.

11. *Discoverers and Explorers*, by Edward R. Shaw. American Book Company.

Good brief accounts of fourteen discoverers and explorers. Many good illustrations. A very useful book for reference work.

12. *A Short History of Discovery*, by Hendrik W. Van Loon. David McKay Company.

A fascinating book, with every other page devoted to pictures. The reading matter is interesting, and the pictures are different from those usually found in history books.

II. A STORY-BOOK LIBRARY

The twelve books below contain stories, fiction, and romance. Read over the list. Do you see any familiar titles? Let each member of the class choose a book to read and to tell the class about before leaving Division One.

6 DISCOVERY, EXPLORATION, AND CONQUEST

1. *The Story of Tonty*, by Mary H. Catherwood. A. C. McClurg & Co.
In the days of La Salle. Tonty was La Salle's guide.

2. *The Treasure Finders*, by Oliver Clay. Duffield & Company.
Ten stories dealing with the romance of discovery and exploration.
A few good pictures.

3. *Our Little Viking Cousin of Long Ago*, by Charles H. L. Johnston. The Page Company.
An account of the Norsemen in America.

4. *The Quest of the Golden Cities*, by G. L. Knapp. Dodd, Mead & Company.
The golden cities are those that Coronado tried to find.

5. *Tonty of the Iron Hand*, by Everett McNeil. E. P. Dutton & Company.
The story of a young French lad who joined La Salle and Tonty in their explorations of the mouth of the Mississippi River.

6. *The Voyagers*, by Padraic Colum. The Macmillan Company.
A combination of romance, legend, and history. Introduces Columbus, Ponce de Leon, and other famous explorers.

7. *The Flamingo Feather*, by Kirk Munroe. Harper & Brothers.
Centers round the attempt of the Huguenots to settle in Florida.

8. *The White Conquerors*, by Kirk Munroe. Charles Scribner's Sons.
As its title suggests, this story deals with the Spanish invasion of Mexico under Cortez and the conquering of the Aztec tribes.

9. *The Man with the Iron Hand*, by John C. Parish. Houghton Mifflin Company.
Stories of the exploration of the Mississippi Valley. Not fiction but history, written from the sources.

10. *The Coming of the White Men*, by Mary H. Wade. W. A. Wilde Company.
Interesting stories of how our country was discovered.

11. *With La Salle the Explorer*, by Virginia Watson. Henry Holt and Company.
The title of this story suggests what it is about. An attractive book.

12. *With Cortez the Conqueror*, by Virginia Watson. Penn Publishing Company.
The story of how Cortez conquered Mexico. Many full-page colored pictures.

DIVISION ONE

DISCOVERY, EXPLORATION, AND CONQUEST

UNIT I. WESTERN EUROPE JUST BEFORE 1492

If you had lived in any part of western Europe just before 1492, you would have heard people talking about what was going on in England, in France, in Spain, and in Portugal; for these were the leading countries at that time. There was no Germany in 1492. Instead there was a group of small countries that long afterward became the German Empire. Neither was there an Italy as we know it today; but there were some lively, prosperous cities on the Italian peninsula, such as Genoa, Venice, and Florence.

1. HOW THE PEOPLE LIVED

The Nobles. The *nobles* were the most important people in the European countries, or at least they were the people about whom you would have heard the most. It was they who owned the greater part of the land — the small farms and the big ones, the great estates and the castles. Some of the nobles were poor and had a hard time to get a living out of the little land which was theirs. Some of them owned enough land to make a county in one of our states and had several castles such as we read about in stories of lords and knights and esquires. A powerful noble had a stable full of horses, many servants to wait upon him and his lady in the castle, and soldiers to protect him from danger and to follow him to the wars. His word was law to everybody who lived

on his land, and anybody who stole a sheep or struck his neighbor or broke any of the rules of the castle was brought before the noble to be judged and punished. The noble (or lord, as he might be called) even owned the church, and all the people on his estate had to go to it. They worshiped as he told them to do, and had to use his mill to grind their grain.

The Peasants. There were only a few nobles. Most of the people were called peasants, and they lived a life unlike anything which we know about in our country. The peasant lived on a lord's farm or estates, and was in a sense the property of the lord.¹ He did all the sowing and reaping, ground the grain into flour, and gave eggs, chickens, and vegetables to the lord at the castle. His wife and daughters did the cooking at the castle, waited on the table, and did what we call housework. In return for his labor the peasant was given a hut in which he lived with his family and his cow — and his pig, if he owned one. He could not run away, because his lord owned him and would bring him back and punish him if he tried to escape. Hence the peasant lived like a slave, working hard, getting little, and obeying the orders of his master.

These customs, however, had for a long time before 1492 been changing, especially in England, where many peasants had been able to save enough money to buy their freedom. Some were able to run away to the cities and hide from their lords. Besides, in 1348 there was a great epidemic of sickness in England. Many of the peasants died. So few were left to do the work that the lords had to give them more privileges and better pay. More were able to buy their liberty. More ran away. Finally, in some places, they refused to work until they should all be given freedom. By 1492 the peas-

¹ In another sense the peasants were not the property of the lord. For example, the peasant had the right to live on the land which the lord gave him, but could not be sold as a cow or horse can be, or as a slave could be sold in the day when there was slavery in the United States.

ants of England had their freedom and worked for wages, just like any farm laborer today.

Life in the Cities. People who lived in the towns and cities did not belong to a lord, but their life was far from being comfortable or safe. The streets were narrow and filthy. The upper stories of the houses jugged out over the streets, and



A PROSPEROUS MEDIEVAL ESTATE AS IT PROBABLY APPEARED ABOUT THE
TIME OF COLUMBUS

Smaller manors had no castle, but a large stone house. Each serf, or peasant, had strips of land in every field

people threw all their refuse and rubbish out of the windows. There were no sewerage systems, no city water supply, no street lights, no police, and no way of preventing disease. Chickens and pigs had as much right in the streets as people had. Dead cats and dogs, decaying vegetables, rubbish, and dirt cluttered up the passageways and spread disease.

Most of the cities were surrounded by walls as protection against enemies from the outside. In the evening, as the sun went down, the great doors of the city walls were shut, and

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nobody could enter except by special permission. After dark most people stayed inside their houses; for the streets were not lighted, and walking was dangerous. Moreover, in many of the cities there were gangs of thieves who went about the streets at night, tipping over carriages, robbing anybody who happened to be out of doors, and damaging property.¹



A MEDIEVAL CASTLE AS IT APPEARS TODAY

The Towns and Trade. These same towns, however, were busy centers of industry and commerce. Italian towns and French towns made wine, and wine merchants carried it from place to place. Grain was shipped from England. Most highly prized were rare goods which came from the Far East, — from Cathay (which we now call China), from India, and from the distant East Indies. Ships from western Europe went to those far-away lands and brought back diamonds and

¹ In Macaulay's *History of England* (chap. iii, "State of England in 1685") there is a famous account of conditions in the city of London.

pearls, sugar and perfumes, and drugs, dyes, and beautiful cloth. Many of these kinds of cloth we still call by the names which they had in those years before 1492, such as damask, muslin, cashmere, and taffeta.

From the East came also cloves, cinnamon, ginger, nutmegs, and pepper, — goods which were far more in demand then than they are now. The people of that time did not have refrigerators and ice with which to keep food fresh. Hence they spiced their food heavily, to hide any taste of staleness or decay. So precious were these cargoes of spice that if one king wished to please another very greatly, he might send a present of some pepper or cinnamon or ginger.

If you had lived at that time in a seaport, you would have become accustomed to hearing of the ships and sailors of Venice and Genoa and of Portugal and Spain. Dark-skinned Italians and Portuguese were well known as skillful sailors and traders. Adventurous Spaniards sailed their small ships in every known sea. The English, and to a less extent the French, were filled with the idea of setting out on the ocean to see what they could discover.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Books usually contain most of the following printed parts: title-page, copyright date, dedication, introduction, preface or foreword, index, contents, illustrations, maps, appendix, chapters, divisions, paragraphs, footnotes, body of book, printing on front cover, and printing on back of book. Identify in this book as many of these parts as you can. Explain the purpose of each part.

2. The Federal government grants copyrights to authors for a period of twenty-eight years. Find when the copyright of this book will run out.

3. You hear people today talking about "noble" men, "ladylike" women, houses like "castles," and farms like great "estates." Explain what they mean.

12 DISCOVERY, EXPLORATION, AND CONQUEST

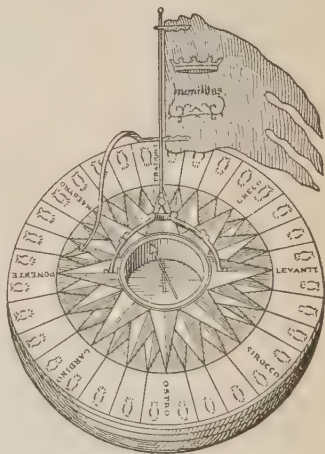
4. Make a list of the daily advantages or conveniences that you now enjoy in America which were unknown in Europe in 1492.

5. Show why trade with the East was so desirable — in fact, somewhat necessary — to western Europe just before 1492.

6. *Resolved*, That life in the European cities just before 1492 was more to be desired than life on the estates of the nobles. In a brief floor talk defend or deny this statement.



AN ASTROLABE



A COMPASS USED IN 1492

2. HOW DID THE SPIRIT OF ADVENTURE LEAD TO NEW VOYAGES OF DISCOVERY?

The Crusades. There had always been a spirit of adventure and discovery in Europe; but it had become greater since the time of the Crusades, expeditions made by hundreds of thousands of people toward the Holy Land.

The city of Jerusalem and the country where Christ had lived were owned by the Turks, who did not believe in the Christian religion and who hated all Europeans. As early as 1096 an army of people went from Europe to try to take Jerusalem from the Turks. Nobles on horseback, peasants on

foot, even women and children, gathered in France and in other countries to go on the Crusades. Some went all the way by land; others went down to the Italian seaports and took to sailboats on the Mediterranean. For about two hundred years armies of people set out every now and then; nobles went alone or collected a few friends; all of them hoped in some way to drive the Turks out of Jerusalem. Most of the Crusaders never lived to come back, but those who did return told dazzling stories of the sights they had seen—strange countries, wonderful oceans, beautiful jewels and silks and armor and spices.

Ships were built in the trading towns to carry crusaders to the East and to bring back the treasures which the East had to offer. To be sure, the attempt to take the Holy Land away from the Turks ended in failure; but *the trade continued*, and so did the journeys of adventurous men to the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea and to Asia and even across to far-away India and China and Japan.¹

¹ The most famous of these explorers was a Venetian named Marco Polo, who lived from about 1254 to 1324. When Marco was about seventeen years old, he started with his father and his uncle on a journey across Asia to China, where he became friendly with the great emperor and even became governor of Yangchow for three years. Then the Polos went to Sumatra, India, and Persia. When they returned to Venice, dressed in shabby, ragged clothes, nobody knew them. They then appeared at the dinner table of their relatives dressed in crimson satin clothing; then they went out, put on suits of crimson velvet, and returned, saying that the servants could have the satin. Again they went out, and this time returned in their ragged clothes, telling the servants that they could have the velvet. Having impressed their relatives in this way, the Polos called for a sharp knife with which they slit open the seams of their shabby garments. Out tumbled rubies, sapphires, diamonds, and emeralds.

Shortly afterward a war broke out in which Marco Polo was captured and taken to Genoa, where he was put into prison. Many people had heard him tell about his adventures, and were so interested that they asked him to write a book. So in prison he spun his yarns to a man who wrote them down. Marco told of the thrilling battles that he had been in, of the vast and dangerous deserts that he had crossed, of the feasts he had eaten, of the idols and temples he had seen, and of the wild animals he had fought. A great deal that Marco Polo told was certainly imaginary, but enough was real to make a wonderful story. People everywhere for centuries read the accounts of Marco Polo's adventures, and wished that they could follow in his footsteps.

Making Travel Safer. While sailors and traders and travelers and men who had been on crusades were spreading the news of their deeds, several inventions were making travel a little safer than it had been before.

1. An improved *compass* made it possible for sailors to go out of sight of land and return in safety.

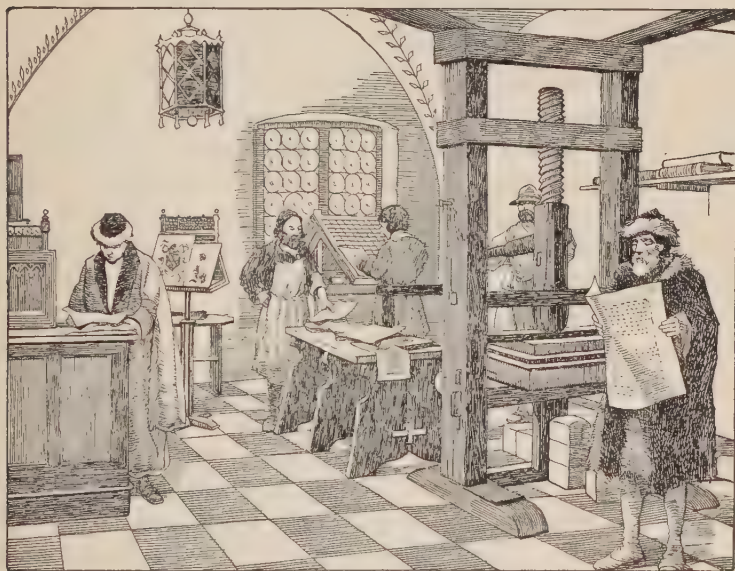
2. An instrument called the *astrolabe* enabled the sailor to find out his latitude.

3. *Gunpowder* came into use and gave the traveler an advantage over savage enemies, who had only bows and arrows.

4. The *printing-press* was invented only a few years before 1492. Before its invention, books were all copied by hand and were so costly that few people ever owned even one. But after the press came into use, books became cheaper, and more of them were printed and sold and read. People began to read about the strange and wonderful countries which the sailors and travelers had been to see.

Prince Henry the Navigator. No people were more interested in travel and exploration than the people of Portugal, and especially one member of the king's family called Prince Henry. He became enthusiastic over the study of geography, maps, ships, and all the new inventions,—so much so that he has been called "Prince Henry the Navigator." He began sending ships down the west coast of Africa to see what could be found there. Every few years one of Prince Henry's captains would get farther than anyone else had been: in 1434 Cape Bojador was reached; in 1441, Cape Blanco; in 1445, Cape Verde; and so on until 1486, after the death of Prince Henry, when Bartholomew Diaz reached the Cape of Good Hope, the southernmost end of the continent of Africa. In so doing he had to brave the sea in the region of the equator, where the ignorant sailors thought that the water would be boiling hot.

A New Trade Route to the East. While Prince Henry's friends were fighting their way down the African coast, a half-savage people from Asia called the Ottoman Turks were spreading toward southeastern Europe ; finally, in 1453, they broke down the defenses of Constantinople and captured the city. Under these conditions trade to the Far East, both by



THE KIND OF PRINTING-PRESS USED IN THE MIDDLE AGES

sea and by land, became more risky than ever. The people of Genoa and Venice, Portugal and England, must either give up some of their spices and Eastern luxuries or find a new route to India. As it happened, a Portuguese captain, Vasco da Gama, sailed from Lisbon in 1497, went round the Cape of Good Hope, up the east coast of Africa, and even over to India, where he purchased a cargo of spices, silks, and jewels, and returned safely to Portugal. Europeans could now get to the East entirely by sea without danger from the Turks.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Show how the Crusades helped to increase, spread, and keep alive the spirit of adventure and discovery in Europe between 1096 and 1492.

2. Tell the story of Marco Polo's adventures in the Far East. If possible, read "Marco Polo: A Merchant Prince," in *Supplementary Studies in American History*, Book One, by Marie Crowe, pp. 1-17.

3. "How the Improved Compass, the Astrolabe, and the Invention of Gunpowder made Travel Safer." Discuss in a brief floor talk.

4. Follow on a map the routes of the friends of Prince Henry the Navigator and of Vasco da Gama. Show why the Portuguese trips were important and why Vasco da Gama was a brave man.

5. Read the accounts of Prince Henry and of Vasco da Gama in *Supplementary Studies in American History*, Book One, by Marie Crowe, pp. 21-35. See also *The Young Folks' Book of Discovery*, by T. C. Bridges, for excellent material on Unit I.

UNIT II. THE DISCOVERY AND NAMING
OF AMERICA

Women who lived in the cities of Portugal and Italy saw the rare and beautiful silks and jewels which the sailors had brought from the Far East. As people met in the streets and market places, they told one another of the wonderful cloth and sweet-smelling spices which the merchants were getting from far-away India. Anybody who could get any of these treasures was envied by all his neighbors.

Nowadays when there is a demand for tropical fruits or oil or rubber from far-away countries, business men send expeditions to those countries to find and buy the things which people wish. In the same way, merchants and navigators in Prince Henry's time wondered whether they could send vessels to India, China, and Japan and get the silks and spices and jewels which the people of Lisbon and Venice and Genoa

wanted. One of the men who had this idea was the son of a wool-worker in Genoa. His name was Christopher Columbus, and he had spent most of his life on the sea.

1. HOW AND WHY DID COLUMBUS SEEK THE EAST BY SAILING WEST?

The Idea of Sailing beyond the Sunset. In the meantime many people who were interested in such voyages as Prince Henry's men were making got the idea that the earth was round, rather than flat. If it was round, why not get to the East by sailing west? Why not sail out beyond the sunset, where, as far as they knew, nobody had ever been before? They had heard of Cathay and of the islands of Cipango (the same islands that we call Japan), with their pearls and gold, their silks and satins, their wonderful birds and flowers and animals. Why not discover a way to sail to these riches and come back with shiploads of treasure? There were venture-some men too, — the men who thought less of the wealth of Cipango and more about what lay beyond the islands of the sea; the men who had sailed out as far as anybody had dared to go, but had the courage to go yet farther.

But there were difficulties enough to frighten the stoutest heart. In the first place, it would take a great deal of money to build ships, equip them, stock them with food, and pay the necessary crews for so long a journey. Besides, most people believed, especially the sailors, that the voyage was dangerous to the point of being reckless. It is easy to understand their fears. The little ships of those days were able to carry hardly a fiftieth or a hundredth part of the cargo of an average modern freight steamer. Even if the earth were round, as some people said it was, would not the people on the other side walk with their heads hanging down? How could anybody be sure that the winds would be strong enough to blow the ships back up the slope of the world?

What if wise men
Judged that the earth like an orange was round,
None of them ever said, "Come along, follow me,
Sail to the West and the East will be found."

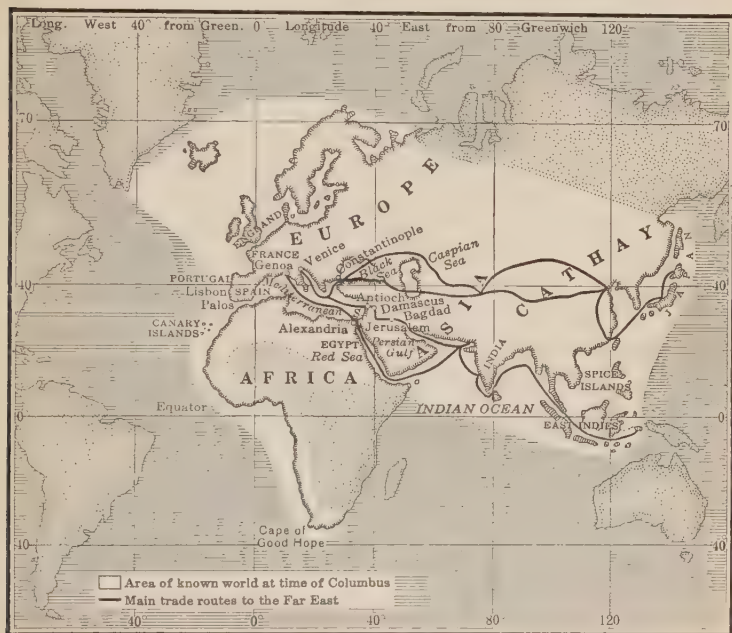
And still again, sailors have always been famous for spinning yarns and for believing them, too; and they had heard tales about the Atlantic Ocean, that "sea of darkness." They had heard of strange monsters, of men whose heads grew down between their shoulders, of fishes that were half human, and of huge women who were fierce warriors. They heard that

slimy things did crawl with legs
Upon the slimy sea.

Columbus's Plans and Preparations. It is not known just why Columbus decided to attempt to get to the Far East by sailing toward the west, but the fact that he had married a relative of one of Prince Henry's sailors might explain his interest in exploration. In some way (perhaps from an astronomer named Toscanelli, although nobody is quite sure about this) Columbus got the idea that the earth was round, and that by sailing west from Europe he could approach China and Japan from the other side. It is thought that Toscanelli had drawn a map showing the world as he supposed it to be, with a great ocean extending from Europe west around the earth to Japan. The distance from Europe across the sea is much larger than Toscanelli thought it to be, and, of course, he had no idea that North and South America lay squarely in the path of any people intending to get to the East by going west.

The desire of Columbus to sail the "sea of darkness" was not the whim of a moment. He had made a long study of geography, and he was an excellent sailor; but he lacked the money necessary to fit out an expedition. As the wealthy people of those days were mainly the kings and the merchants, Columbus went first to the king of Portugal, whom

he asked for three ships with crews and with enough food to last a year. The king refused. He then went to Spain to see King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella. That was in 1486, but it was not until 1492 that they made up their minds to do as Columbus wished.¹ Nobody knows exactly why the



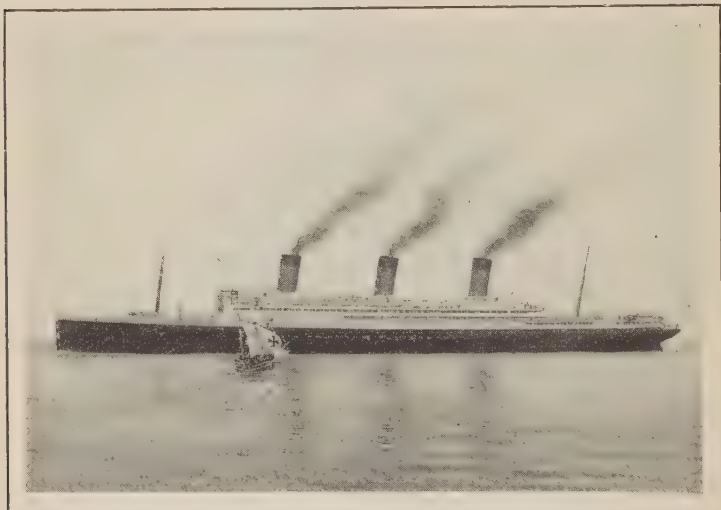
THE WORLD AS KNOWN TO EUROPE WHEN COLUMBUS SAILED

king and the queen were interested in so extraordinary a plan, but probably they had two things in mind: (1) they might send missionaries to convert the natives beyond the seas to the Christian religion; and (2) Columbus might find for them

¹ The long delay from 1486 to 1492 is easily explained. Ferdinand and Isabella were fighting a long and bitter war with the Moors, who had invaded Spain and captured the whole southern part of the country. It took all their time and money to raise armies to drive the Moors back into Africa. The last town that the Moors held was Granada, and in 1492 the Spanish armies succeeded in capturing even this. Then at last Ferdinand and Isabella were willing to listen more attentively to the Genoese sailor who thought that he could reach India by sailing west.

treasures of gold and silver, and lands to add to the kingdom of Spain. At any rate, they supplied the three ships: the *Santa Maria*, the *Niña*, and the *Pinta*. The largest, the *Santa Maria*, was only eighty feet long. The crews of all three numbered less than a hundred men.¹

The First Voyage of Columbus. On Friday, August 3, 1492, in the early morning, the little fleet set out from the harbor



A MODEL OF ONE OF THE SHIPS OF COLUMBUS COMPARED WITH A
MODERN STEAMSHIP

of Palos, in Spain, steering southwest and west, day after day and week after week, across the apparently unending sea. The crew became frightened and discouraged, then angry, and finally plotted to throw Columbus overboard and return home. Fortunately, however, one day some of the sailors saw bits of wood floating on the water, which seemed to indicate

¹ The *Majestic* and the *Leviathan*, the biggest modern ocean-going steamships, are each nearly eleven and a half times as long as the *Santa Maria*. The *Majestic* can carry about two hundred and eighty-three times as heavy a cargo as the *Santa Maria* could.

that land must be near. Late in the evening of October 11 Columbus thought he saw a light ahead like a wax candle flaring and flickering in the breeze, and at two o'clock on the morning of October 12 a sailor in the *Pinta* cried "Land! land!" At daylight the land turned out to be an island, which Columbus named San Salvador, meaning "Holy Savior." He had reached his goal — "the land where the sunsets go."¹



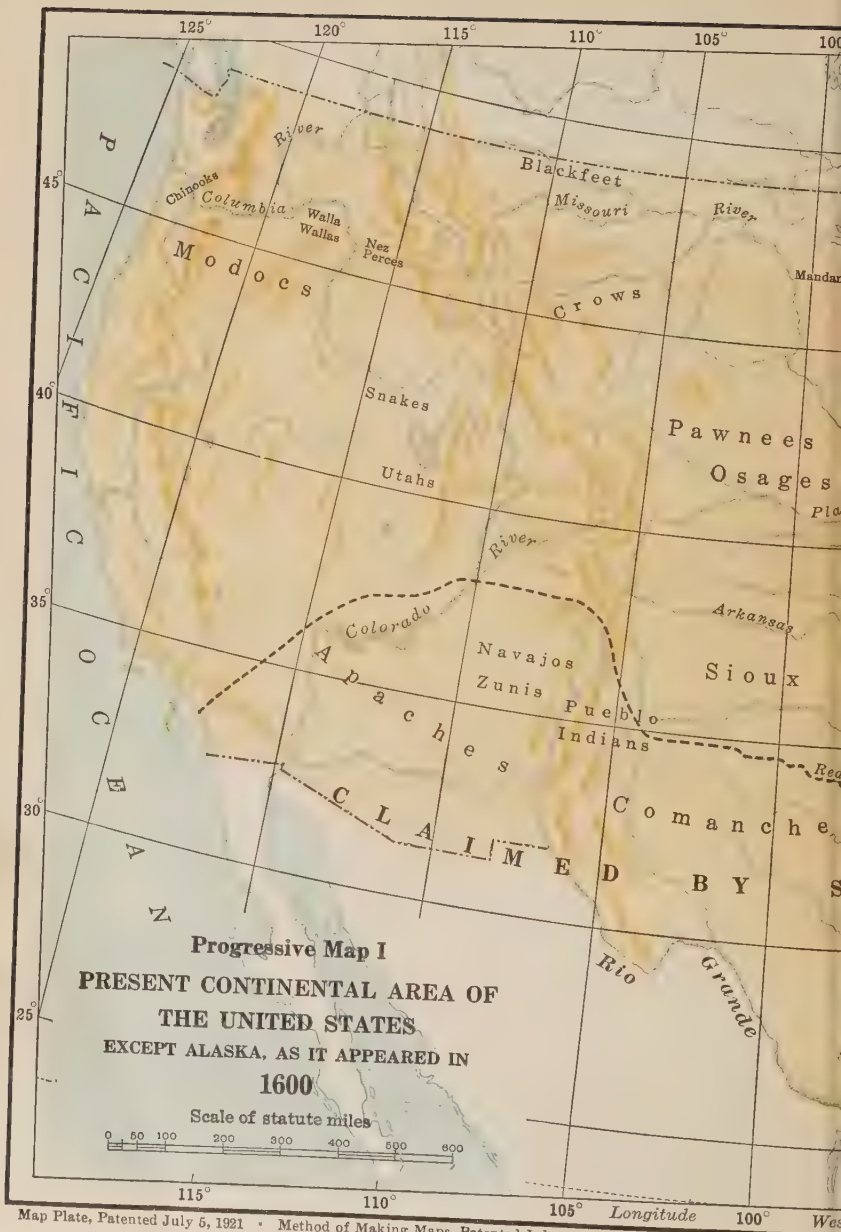
THE FOUR VOYAGES OF CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS

Columbus spent most of his days between 1492 and 1504 on the Atlantic Ocean. It was no longer the "sea of darkness" after his great work was finished

Columbus did not know that he was at the edge of a new continent; and supposing that the people whom he saw were natives of the East Indies, he called them Indians, thus giv-

¹ It is not possible to say what island it was on which Columbus first landed. It is thought to have been what is known as Watling Island, one of the Bahama group.

There is ground for thinking that a sailor named Leif, son of Eric the Red, in the employ of the king of Norway, made a long journey in the year 1000 to Greenland and to a place called Vinland. Vinland may have been some part of North America — perhaps New England or Nova Scotia. If so, the real discoverer of America was Leif Ericson. In any case, however, no further voyages were made by these Norwegians, — or Northmen, as they are often called, — and their discovery was of slight importance.



Progressive Map I
PRESENT CONTINENTAL AREA OF
THE UNITED STATES
EXCEPT ALASKA, AS IT APPEARED IN
1600

Scale of statute miles





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ing them the name that we still use for the people living in America before the white man came. After visiting Cuba and Haiti he still supposed that he was on the coast of Asia. Then he returned to Spain with the *Niña* and the *Pinta*, the *Santa Maria* having been wrecked.

The whole population of Palos turned out to welcome Columbus. Then he went to see Ferdinand and Isabella at Barcelona, leading his sailors and some Indians whom he had captured — the Indians clad in gold and carrying spears and arrows, and the sailors bearing gayly colored parrots and other birds from beyond the "sea of darkness."

Later Voyages of Columbus. At first there was great enthusiasm over the success of Columbus. Then complaint was made that he had not brought back the large quantities of gold and spices that the Spanish desired; and so between 1493 and 1504 he made three more voyages, on one of which he touched the continent of South America. His failure to find gold, and his quarrels with the Spanish officers who went with him, made him unpopular. Once he was sent back to Spain a prisoner, with chains fastened to his ankles. He died in 1506, soon after his fourth voyage, without knowing that he had discovered a new continent, but believing merely that the lands he had found were some of the islands of the East Indies.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Point out the difficulties that Columbus had to overcome and show how he overcame them.
2. Tell the story of Columbus's first voyage. If possible make use of Joaquin Miller's poem "Columbus" in connection with your story.
3. Follow on a map the lines indicating the course of each of the four voyages made by Columbus.
4. In the United States there are a Federal district, a river, and over forty cities and towns named in commemoration of Columbus. Point out on a map the district, the river, and several of the cities.

5. Write in as few words as possible the reasons why the people of Europe wished an all-water route to the Indies.

6. There are many accounts of the voyages of Columbus in the books in the Day-by-Day Reference Library on pages 4-5. Read some of them. Numbers 6 and 7 are the best.

2. HOW THE AMERICAS WERE DISCOVERED AND NAMED

"John the Skipper." There was another Genoese sailor, who was so famous a seaman that he was known as Giovanni Caboto, which means "John the Skipper." We know him as John Cabot. It was in 1497 that Cabot sailed under the flag of England to find new lands for the English king and to discover, if he could, the much-desired sea way to Japan. Instead of sailing west and south as Columbus had done, Cabot took a northerly route and landed, so he thought, somewhere on the coast of China. Nobody knows exactly where he did land, but it was on the coast of North America, probably north of Nova Scotia — possibly on Newfoundland or Labrador. At any rate, he saw snares set for catching animals, which indicated that the land was inhabited, and he discovered that the sea was so filled with fish that they could be caught by lowering a bucket weighted with stones. Although Cabot soon came back from his voyage, he took time to hoist a flag on the new lands and to claim them for the king of England.

Having convinced the king that by making another trip he could find an island rich in spices and jewels, Cabot obtained from His Majesty a promise of a fleet of vessels to be manned by prisoners from the jails of England. The next voyage occurred in 1498, and it is thought that Cabot never returned from it — not a surprising outcome if the king gave him the promised crew.¹

¹ After John Cabot disappeared, his son Sebastian took command. Upon his return to England, Sebastian used to tell how the sea where he had been was so full of fish that it was difficult to force his ships through them. William Wood, who wrote *Elizabethan Sea-Dogs*, says that this is the first American "fish story."

Amerigo Vespucci. There was still another Italian — by name Amerigo Vespucci — who sailed across the Atlantic in 1499 and 1500. On his return he wrote a little book about what he called "the new world." In this book Vespucci made it appear that he himself was the real discoverer of America. It chanced that in 1507 a teacher in eastern France was publishing a book about geography, and, looking on Amerigo as the discoverer of the New World, he suggested that it be named America. Thus it came about that the Western Hemisphere was named after Vespucci instead of after Columbus.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. "The History of the United States may be said to have had its beginning on March 5, 1496, when Henry VII of England granted John Cabot the right to seek other islands or countries across the Atlantic." Point out in what respects this statement is true and in what respects it is not true.

2. Follow the lines on the map on page 31 which indicate the course of the voyages of Cabot and Vespucci.

3. Columbus and Cabot were Italians. Tell why one sailed under the flag of Spain and the other under the flag of England.

4. Explain why there are now a North America and a South America rather than a North Columbia and a South Columbia.

5. Show why trade by water was more desirable than trade by land during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.

6. Read "Some Early Voyagers" in *Explorers and Settlers*, by Ernest Ingersoll, pp. 57-67. Vespucci and Cabot are the chief voyagers mentioned.

UNIT III. THE CONTINUATION OF THE GREAT SEARCH

So far nobody had discovered the two things which all the early explorers had hoped to find. If there was a waterway through to China and Japan, nobody had seen it. If there were heaps of gold and silver in the New World, they had

escaped the eager hands of Columbus and his followers. There was plenty of land, of course (nobody knew how far it might extend), and as soon as the European kings heard about it they began to claim it as theirs. There was plenty of danger



BALBOA VIEWING THE PACIFIC OCEAN

From a drawing made by an explorer of the time. How many things mentioned in the text do you find in the picture?

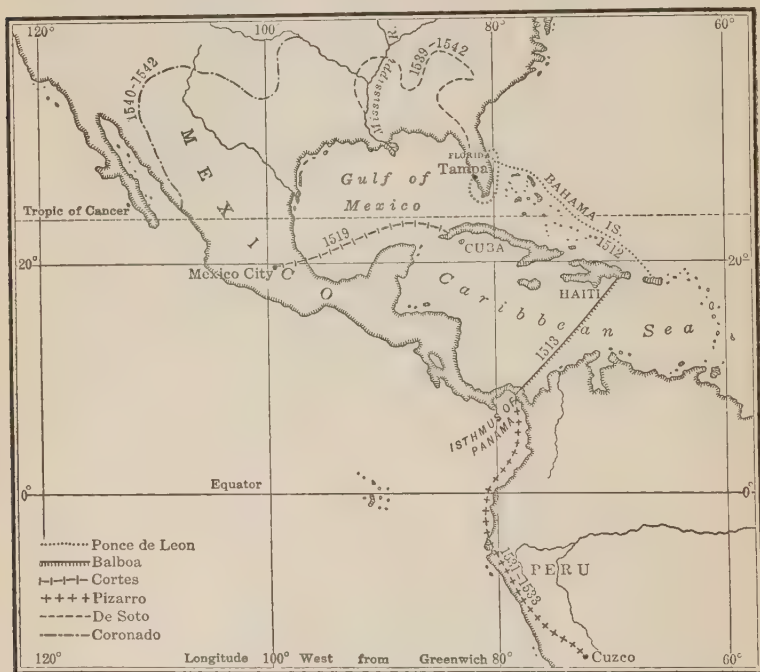
and adventure, too, which were so attractive that thousands of men hoped to take the wonderful journey — far more men than could go on the tiny ships of those days.

1. HOW GOLD-SEEKERS FROM SPAIN SOUGHT AND FOUND RICHES

Balboa. One of the lovers of adventure was a Spaniard named Balboa, who landed on the Isthmus of Panama.¹ Here he picked up rumors of a sea not far away, a sea that was much quieter than the Atlantic. On the edge of the quiet

¹ It is said that Balboa could not get a place as a regular member of any of the expeditions to America. Hence he had himself smuggled aboard a ship in a provision cask, and so got to the New World. See I. B. Richman, *Spanish Conquerors*, p. 66.

ocean, the rumors said, lived a prince who owned a vast treasure of gold, which was exactly the thing that Balboa wished to find. Accordingly he fitted out his men with swords and bows, took along some fierce bloodhounds, and started across the narrow neck of land. The Indians fell back before his



ROUTES OF SPANISH EXPLORERS AND CONQUERORS

arrows and his dogs, and at length he came to a mountain, from whose top he saw the ocean which we call the Pacific. He found some gold, too, and some pearls. In September, 1513, he waded into the sea, claiming everything round him for the king of Spain.

Cortez and Pizarro. Balboa heard of other lands where there were still greater treasures of gold and silver, and new expedi-

tions started for these countries. Cortez led one into the heart of Mexico, where he found people whom we know as the Aztecs. The Aztecs had developed many modern ideas. In their capital, Mexico City, were attractive buildings, streets, and temples. There were market places, where food, clothes, and pottery were sold, and where there was even a barber shop. Cortez captured the city in 1521 and seized some slaves and a treasurehouse.¹

Gold! Gold! Gold! Gold!
Bright and yellow, hard and cold.

Pizarro led another expedition down the west coast of South America. Here he climbed the Andes Mountains and captured a rich native prince and his entire treasure.² All this country Cortez and Pizarro claimed for the king of Spain.

Magellan. Meanwhile how about the sea way to China and Japan? It was Magellan who answered this question.

When Magellan was a young man he saw the return of Vasco da Gama from his great voyage to India, and he himself took up a seafaring life. In 1519 he persuaded the king of Spain to equip a fleet of five ships, with which he proposed to find a passage through the New World toward the Indies. Approaching the coast of Brazil he slowly made his way south, seeking the hoped-for channel. Winter overtook him; his crew mutinied and were put down only after some of the men had been killed. At last, late in October, 1520 (while Cortez was climbing the mountains of Mexico), Magellan entered what we know as the Strait of Magellan. For thirty-eight

¹ There is not time to tell of the tropical fruits, flowers, and birds which Cortez saw; of the two great wheels which he received, each as large as a wagon wheel, one of gold and one of silver; of the guns he carried, whose report and flash seemed to the natives like thunder and lightning; or even of the hordes of mosquitoes that attacked him, "both long-legged ones and small ones."

² When the treasure was gathered together it filled a room seventeen feet wide, twenty-two feet long, and nearly nine feet high with gold and silver dishes, vases and jars, sheets of gold, and all manner of pieces of the precious metals.

days he threaded his way between lofty and snow-covered cliffs, and at last sailed out into a quiet expanse which he named the Pacific, or "peaceful ocean." They were

the first that ever burst
Into that silent sea.

Month after month he spent on this endless ocean. Food ran low, and finally gave out; leather was stripped from the masts, soaked in water, boiled, and eaten. Magellan himself was killed by a native in the Philippines; but one of his captains found the way to the Spice Islands, to the Indian Ocean, to the Cape of Good Hope, and so back to Spain, where the king gave him a coat of arms on which was a globe bearing the sentence "You first sailed around me."

De Soto and Coronado. While Balboa and Cortez and Pizarro were finding gold and claiming Central and South America for the king of Spain, other explorers were tramping through the forests of the southern part of what is now called the United States. One of these was Hernando de Soto, who set out from Tampa in 1539. He made his way along the west coast of Florida and through the present states of Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Arkansas. In May, 1541, he first saw the Mississippi River. After his death in 1542 the few of his followers who were alive (most of them had died of hunger and constant fighting with the Indians) traveled down the river to the Gulf of Mexico and along the shore until they came to a spot where some other Spaniards had made a settlement. It was four years and three months from the day when De Soto had left Tampa.

Another brave explorer was Coronado, who set out from the west coast of Mexico in 1540 and toiled across our present Arizona, New Mexico, Kansas, and Oklahoma. He was in search of seven strange cities that some of De Soto's men said they had seen on their way across this section of the

country. With a band of about four hundred, Coronado set out in April, 1540, for the conquest of these "Seven Cities of Cibola." After months of severe hardship and fighting, one of the cities was captured. It proved to be nothing more than a Zuñi Indian settlement. Other villages were soon discovered, but nowhere was any great treasure to be found.

What the Gold-seekers Found. In spite of the gold and silver that Cortez and Pizarro had captured, most of the explorers found only danger and adventure; in fact, probably the least important thing that they did was to take and carry away the treasures of the natives. Other things that they accomplished were far more important.

1. The explorers added enormously to the *knowledge of geography*. They found the West Indies, they crossed the Isthmus of Panama, they saw the Pacific, they sailed up the rivers of the New World, they scaled the Andes, and they proved that ships could sail round the earth without falling off on the other side.

2. They planted *colonies* wherever they went, on the islands and on the mainland. To this day the people of these parts of America speak the Spanish language, except in Brazil, which was settled by the Portuguese.

3. Although many of these men were not Spaniards themselves, they were sailing under the flag of Spain; hence they *claimed for the Spanish king all the lands and islands and seas which they discovered*. The king of Spain became the greatest landowner of Europe.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Interesting and easy-to-read accounts of the Spanish explorers and conquerors are found in F. W. Hutchinson's *The Men Who Found America*, chaps. ii-vi. Either read these chapters or look up similar accounts in other books listed on page 4. See also L. B. Evans's *America First*, pp. 3-23.

2. Tell the story of Magellan's voyage and follow on a map the route his ships took.

3. Compare the accomplishments of Cortez and Pizarro with those of Magellan and Balboa as to their permanent importance.

4. Tell the story of the explorations of De Soto and of Coronado. Follow on the map on page 26 the routes they traveled.

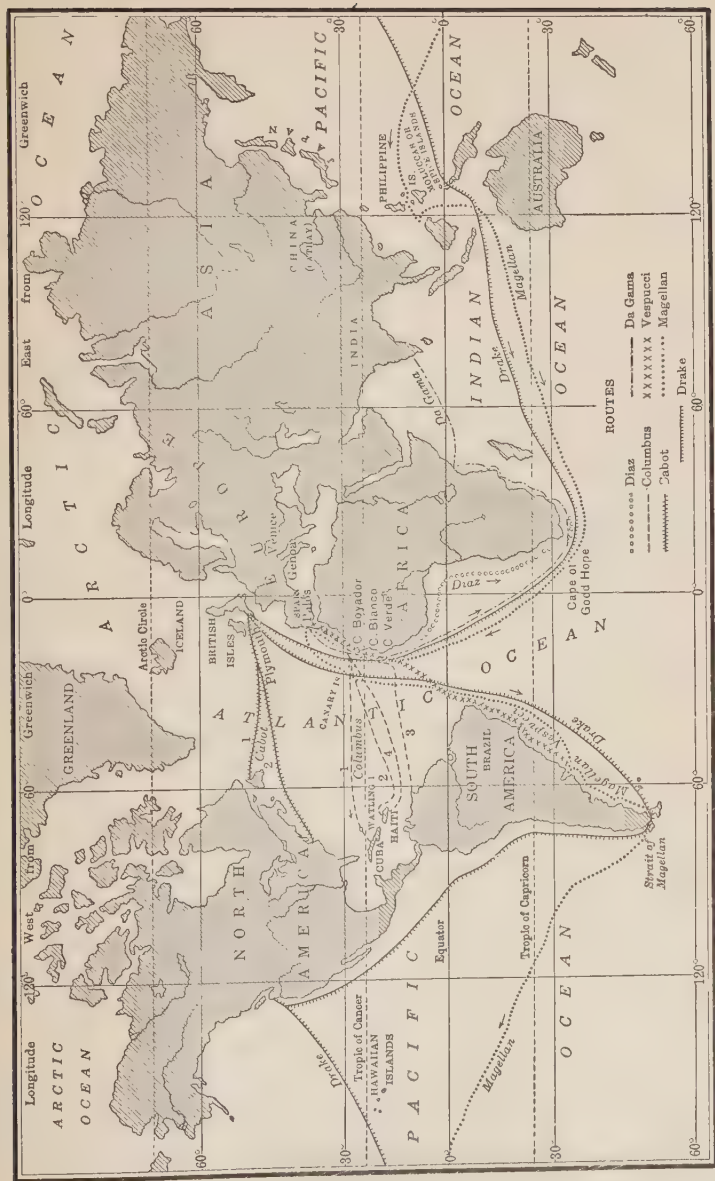
5. "What the Gold-seekers Found and Did." Discuss in a two-minute floor talk.

6. Look at the pictures of Spanish explorers and conquerors in *Highlights of History*, by J. C. Mansfield. Call the attention of the class to them.

2. HOW THE "SEA DOGS" OF ENGLAND ROAMED THE SEAS AND FOUGHT THE SPANIARDS

The Elizabethan "Sea Dogs." For some time after the Cabot voyages England took little interest in exploration. King Henry VII, who had helped Cabot, was followed by Henry VIII, who had so many troubles at home that he paid little attention to the possibilities of getting more land across the seas. His daughter Queen Elizabeth, however, who succeeded him in 1558, did much to encourage a remarkable group of seafaring men — John Hawkins, Francis Drake, and others.

The most famous of these, Francis Drake and John Hawkins, were attacked by the Spanish while they were engaged in trade with Spanish settlements on the Mexican coast. Drake made up his mind to get even with the Spaniards as promptly as possible. In 1572 he attacked some Spanish towns, seized a big store of money, and returned home. He arrived on a Sunday morning in 1573 and created so much excitement that the people left the preacher alone in the church and crowded out to see the hero. A few years later he set out again. This time he went through the Strait of Magellan and sailed along the western coast of South America. At one place he came upon a Spanish ship with a cargo of gold. Over the side with



VOYAGES OF DISCOVERY, 1492-1580

pistols and cutlasses went Drake's men, whipped the Spaniards, and took their treasure. At another spot Drake made a landing and happened upon a Spaniard lying asleep beside thirteen bars of silver. "We took the silver," said the historian of the expedition, "and left the man." Farther north Drake captured more treasure ships. He went as far as what is now Oregon, then across the Pacific, round the Cape of Good Hope, and so home. He arrived in Plymouth, England, in 1580, his vessel

With the fruit of Aladdin's garden clustering thick in her hold,
With rubies awash in her scuppers and her bilge ablaze with gold.

Queen Elizabeth, quite delighted, visited Drake on the deck of his ship and knighted him then and there. Thenceforth he was known as Sir Francis Drake.

Sir Humphrey Gilbert and Sir Walter Raleigh. But the queen wanted more than a few cargoes of gold and silver stolen from Spanish treasure ships. She wished lands in the New World, just as the king of Spain did, and the only way to get them was to send over men who would live in America and hold the land for England. So it was that in 1578 Queen Elizabeth granted Sir Humphrey Gilbert the right to discover, explore, and inhabit certain lands in the New World.

Sir Humphrey's efforts cost him his life, for on a return voyage from Newfoundland his vessel went down, and all on board were lost. His half-brother, Sir Walter Raleigh, lost no time in sending other expeditions to America. In 1584 an expedition fitted out by Raleigh landed on what is now the coast of North Carolina and remained for two months. The next year another expedition was sent out and finally established a settlement on Roanoke Island. After a short stay the settlers were picked up by Drake on one of his later voyages and taken back to England. The third and final attempt was made by Raleigh in 1587. In this year three

vessels brought to North Carolina from Plymouth, England, one hundred and fifty men, women, and children, and landed them on the same island that had been deserted by the former band. The three ships then returned to England for supplies. Four years later they sailed back to Raleigh's settlement, only to find some empty huts. Nobody has ever found out what became of the one hundred and fifty people.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Tell the story of Sir Francis Drake and his wonderful voyage and follow on a map the line which shows the route he took in his course round the world.

2. Explain the meaning of the expression "Elizabethan sea dogs."

3. "Raleigh's Three Attempts to make a Settlement in Virginia." Discuss in a brief floor talk. Read "The Boy Who Loved the Sea," in F. W. Hutchinson's *The Men Who Found America*, pp. 90-103; or "Sir Walter Raleigh" and "The Lost Colony of Roanoke," in L. B. Evans's *America First*, pp. 23-31.

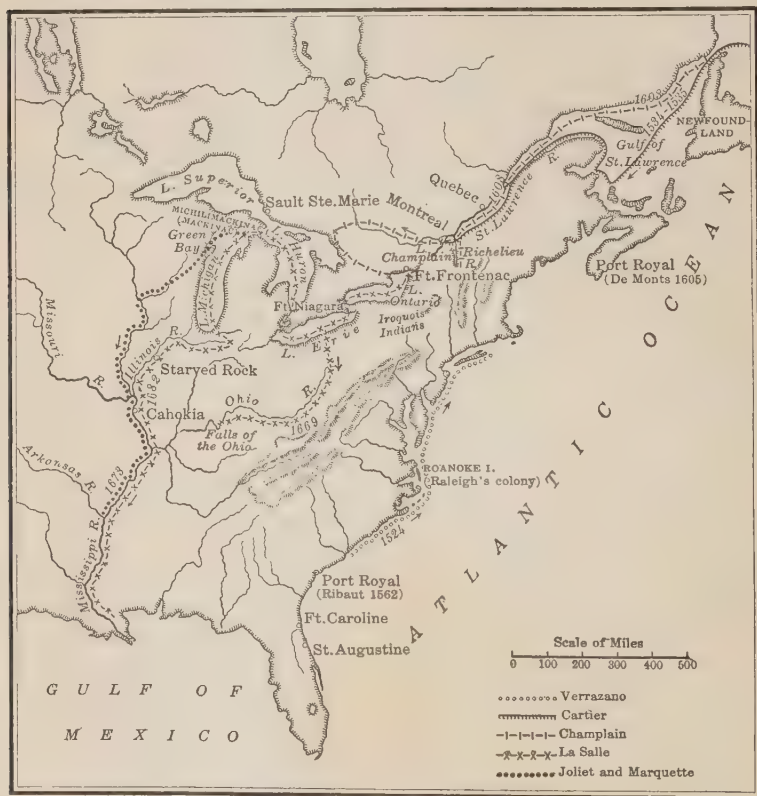
4. Read *The Young Folks' Book of Discovery*, by T. C. Bridges, chaps. xiii, xvi, and xvii, and look at the pictures of English exploration in *Highlights of History*, by J. C. Mansfield.

3. WHAT THE FRENCH MISSIONARIES AND FUR-TRADERS DID IN CANADA AND IN THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY

Cartier and Champlain. While adventurers under the flags of Spain and England were dividing the New World, the kings of France showed no interest in exploration. It was not until 1534 that France sent Cartier to America, and 1534 was after Cabot and Balboa and Cortez and Pizarro had all done their famous deeds.

When Cartier sailed to the west, therefore, he turned his ship toward the upper part of North America, in order perhaps to avoid the claims of England and Spain, and because French sailors like himself had been accustomed to catch fish

near Newfoundland. Three times between 1534 and 1542 Cartier explored the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the bays and the sea nearby, and twice he stayed through the winter there. But Cartier found no treasure; nor did he discover any sea



FRENCH EXPLORERS IN THE NEW WORLD

way to China and Japan, although there had been some hope that the St. Lawrence River might be the long-sought passage. Hence Cartier's voyages were looked upon as failures.

The king of France was more interested in affairs at home than in sending useless expeditions to America, and nothing

more was done until 1603, when Champlain sailed up the St. Lawrence, looked about the country, and took back to France a cargo of furs which he had obtained from the Indians. The furs interested the French merchants more than did the sea way to China. More trading ships were sent and more furs were brought back, and in 1608 Champlain founded Quebec, the first permanent French colony in what we now know as Canada.

The next year Champlain set out on one of his many trips exploring the rivers, lakes, and forests in the region of the St. Lawrence valley. On the first trip he paddled up the Richelieu River (which flows into the St. Lawrence) and so into the beautiful lake which today bears his name. Near the edge of the lake he met some Iroquois Indians, whom he defeated, and by so doing aroused their enduring enmity for the French. In 1642 some missionaries who wished to convert the Indians took the lead in founding the colony of Montreal.

The Missionaries and the Fur-Traders in New France. The work of the missionaries and the fur-traders became the two chief interests in Canada, or "New France," as it was often called. Up the St. Lawrence to the Great Lakes, along the Lakes, and up and down the rivers leading to them, went the missionary and the trapper. The former converted the red man of the American forest to the Christian religion; the latter gave him powder, cloth, and trinkets in return for the skins of the beaver, the otter, the mink, and other fur-bearing animals.

Every spring the Indians and the fur-traders collected at the little settlements on the shores of the Lakes, such as those far out at Green Bay (in what is now Wisconsin) and Michilimackinac (in northern Michigan). Sometimes several hundred canoes joined in one huge fleet, carrying a hundred thousand skins or more, and paddled together to Montreal. Here the furs were sold for shipment to Europe, supplies were bought for the coming winter, and the Indian and the trapper

got a sight of their friends before they returned for another year in the lonely forests.

It was from such Indians as these that the French heard of a vast inland river which made its way to the ocean. Might it not be the long-sought sea way to China?

In 1673 Joliet, a trader, and a brave missionary named Father Marquette found the vast inland river, the same that we know as the Mississippi. They explored this river as far south as the mouth of the Arkansas. A few years later another trader, named La Salle, determined to follow the Mississippi to the sea. The interesting experiences which he and his men had are too long to tell here, but in 1682 he reached the mouth of the great stream (which did not reach to China after all) and claimed for the king of France all the land through which the river and its tributaries flowed. He paddled back against the current as far as the present city of St. Louis, and then made his way to the Great Lakes and so to Quebec. From there he went to France to tell the king what he had done and to ask for men and supplies for a colony near the Gulf of Mexico. In attempting to start the settlement, however, La Salle was killed by one of his own men.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

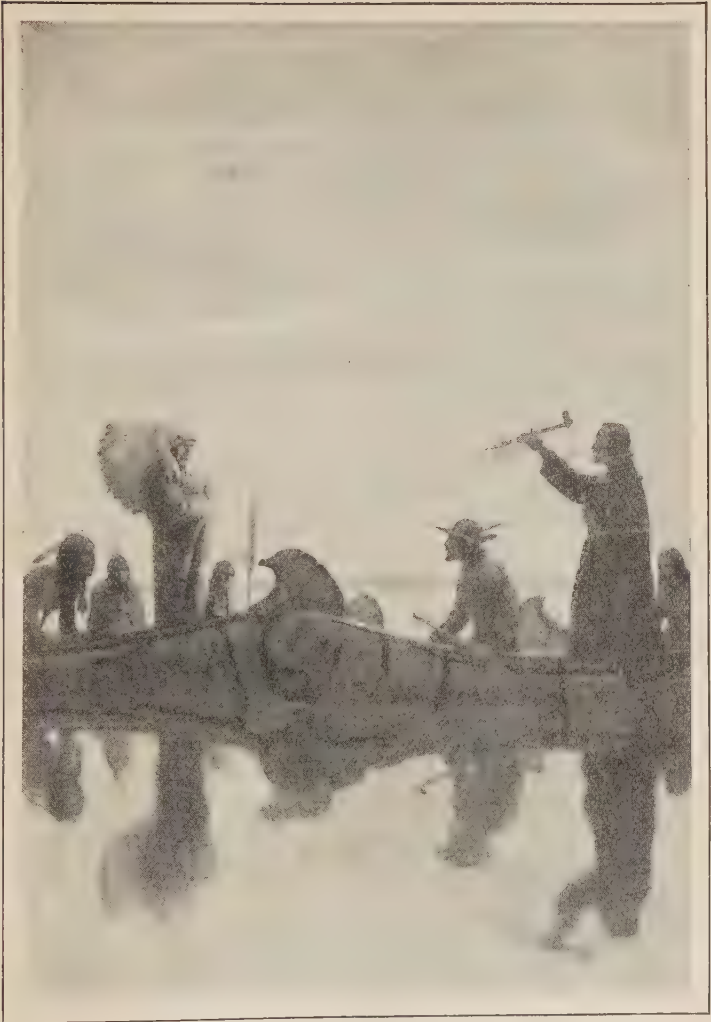
1. Show why Cartier's voyages were looked upon as failures.

2. "Champlain's Great Work." Discuss in a brief floor talk. Read "The Father of New France," in F. W. Hutchinson's *The Men Who Found America*, pp. 127-140.

3. Follow on a map the route taken by Marquette and Joliet in their canoes.

4. Discuss in a brief floor talk the importance of the expedition of La Salle.

5. The books numbered 2, 4, 5, 9, and 10 on page 6 have excellent treatments of the French in America. Do not miss reading some of them.



FATHER MARQUETTE ON THE MISSISSIPPI

From a painting by Peter Hurd

4. WHAT WERE THE RESULTS OF THE EARLY EXPLORATIONS
IN THE AMERICAS?

The peculiar fact about the work of the explorers is that the majority of them failed to find the things they most wanted. Nevertheless, they found things which were in the long run more valuable than gold and silver. Most important of all, they discovered two great continents, gained a better idea of the size of the earth, sailed around it, and laid the foundations for the several nations of North and South America. Since each explorer sailed under the flag of some European ruler, it is necessary to notice what parts of the New World were claimed by Spain, England, and France.

The Spanish Claims. Within sixty or seventy years after the great voyages of Columbus, Spain claimed the southern part of North America, besides all South America except Brazil. About one hundred and fifty thousand Spanish people had come over to settle. They engaged in farming, in raising cattle, and in mining gold and silver. A profitable trade was started between the colonies and Spain. Many of the Indians were made slaves and were forced to work in the mines. Missions were set up — churches in which the Indians were converted to the Christian religion.

England's Claims. England's claims were based upon the voyages of Cabot, Drake, and Hawkins. She looked upon the eastern shores of the present United States as rightfully belonging to her.

The Claims of France. France had got a foothold through the work of Champlain, Marquette, Joliet, and La Salle. She had started some settlements in Nova Scotia, on the St. Lawrence, and on the Great Lakes. The whole Mississippi Valley had been explored for the king of France. But the French explorers, as we have seen, had at the same time aroused the hatred of the powerful Iroquois tribes.

BEFORE LEAVING DIVISION ONE

- I. Debate one or more of the following subjects :
 1. *Resolved*, That the invention of gunpowder had more to do with the discovery of America than the invention of the compass and astrolabe.
 2. *Resolved*, That the Portuguese were greater explorers than the Spaniards.
 3. *Resolved*, That Pizarro was a greater conqueror than Cortez.
 4. *Resolved*, That Spain's claim to North America by 1600 was better than England's.
 5. *Resolved*, That the French claims to North America by 1608 were better than either the Spanish or the English claims.
- II. Prepare the following for your notebook :
 1. A *Hall of Fame* for Division One. This will be a list of the most important persons mentioned in this division. Let each member of the class first make a list of twenty persons who, he feels, should be in the *Hall*. The list to be placed in the notebook might be determined by a majority vote.
 2. A brief statement of why the following dates are important : 1492, 1513, 1519-1522.
 3. A list of the chief explorers according to the nation represented. This means a list of those representing Spain, England, France, and Portugal. Write the best statement, one sentence in length, that you can make with respect to the work of each person on the list.
 4. Such pictures of ships, costumes, armor, weapons, and other things that belong to the period of history described in Division One as you are able to collect while studying the division or at any time afterward.
 5. A map, as follows :
 - a. Title : Routes of Early Explorers and Discoverers.
 - b. Use a desk outline map of the world, double page in size.
 - c. Show North America, South America, Europe, Asia, Africa, Atlantic Ocean, Indian Ocean, Pacific Ocean, England, France, Spain, Portugal, Genoa, Venice, Florence, China,

the Holy Land, Jerusalem, Persia, India, Cape of Good Hope, Cape Bojador, Cape Blanco, Cape Verde, Constantinople, Japan, Florida, Brazil, Mexico City, Roanoke Island, Virginia, Montreal, Quebec, Lake Champlain, St. Lawrence River, Richelieu River, Hudson River, Illinois River, Lake Michigan, Gulf of Mexico, Mississippi River.

- d.* Trace the routes of the following explorers: Columbus (first voyage), Drake, Magellan, Vespucci, Cabot, La Salle, De Soto, Coronado, Balboa, Champlain.

III. Be able to do the following things:

1. Tell a straightforward and brief story of Division One.
2. Point out the location and explain the importance of the explorations of Columbus, Cartier, Champlain, Vespucci, Balboa, Magellan, Cortez, Pizarro, De Soto, Coronado, Cabot, Drake, Raleigh, and Da Gama.
3. Locate on the map the land claimed by France, England, and Spain in 1600.
4. Explain the importance of the following:
 - a.* 1450, the invention of printing.
 - b.* 1453, the capture of Constantinople.
 - c.* 1492, the first voyage of Columbus.
 - d.* 1497, Cabot reaches the mainland of North America.
 - e.* 1513, Balboa discovers the Pacific Ocean.
 - f.* 1519-1522, Magellan's voyage around the world.
5. Write the following dates in Arabic numerals: the first year of the sixteenth century; the end of the first quarter of the seventeenth century; the last year of the eighteenth century.
6. Answer the questions asked in the Foreword of this division about the differences between exploring expeditions in 1492 and now.

IV. Write a brief paper on the subject "Books of an Historical Nature I have used while studying Discovery, Exploration, and Conquest." Give most space to books like those listed in the Story-Book Library on page 6. A brief mention of books like those listed in the Day-by-Day Reference Library on page 4 will do.

DIVISION TWO

*THE FOUNDING OF THE COLONIES AND THE STRUGGLE
FOR SUPREMACY IN NORTH AMERICA, 1607-1763*

FOREWORD

As we have seen, the discoverers and explorers from Spain, France, and England claimed the New World for their kings. Some of the explorers lost their lives, and most of the rest went back to Europe.

The kings of England said that a great deal of the new country belonged to them because of Cabot and the men who had followed him ; the kings of France thought that they had a good claim because of Cartier ; the rulers of Spain could point to Columbus and many other explorers. But, in the long run, *the land would really belong to the people who settled on it and lived there.* That was why the European countries sent over shiploads of *colonists*.

The *explorer* travels, makes a claim, and goes back ; the *colonist* builds a home, tills the soil, and stays. The pages of Division Two tell about the attempts of several countries to start colonies in America and keep them alive. Which took more courage and perseverance : to be an explorer or to be a colonist ?

The best colonists were men who could cut down forests, build cabins, till the soil, and protect themselves from such enemies as wild animals and Indians. As you read the account of the earliest colonies you can be imagining what a hard task these men had, and be making up your mind as to what country sent the best colonists and why they were the best.



THE SETTLEMENT OF JAMESTOWN

From a painting based on one of The Chronicles of America Photoplays.
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TWO TWELVE-BOOK LIBRARIES

I. A DAY-BY-DAY REFERENCE LIBRARY

Before you begin your study of Division Two look over the first list of twelve books below. Are you already familiar with any of them? If you are, tell the class about them. If they are not in your school library, secure them elsewhere if possible. Make them your companions while you are studying this division of the text. Aim to use some of them every day.

1. *Colonial Fights and Fighters*, by Cyrus T. Brady. McClure, Phillips and Company.

Contains material on the French and Indian War as well as on earlier colonial wars. It contains also several good pictures and six useful maps.

2. *Heroes of the Middle West*, by Mary H. Catherwood. Ginn and Company.

Devoted entirely to the activities of the French in the Mississippi Valley. Valuable to use in connection with the French and Indian War.

3. *Our First Century*, by G. C. Eggleston. Volume I of *Our Colonial Story*. Laidlaw Brothers.

An account of the early settlements in all their phases. Some good material on early colonial agriculture, trade, manufactures, education, religion, and life in general. A few illustrations.

4. *Colonial Days*, by W. F. Gordy. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Begins with Spain and England in the New World and ends with Pontiac's War. Valuable material on how all the colonies began, Bacon's Rebellion, Indian wars, Salem witchcraft, and the struggle for supremacy between the French and the English.

5. *The Romance of American Colonization*, by W. E. Griffis. W. A. Wilde Company.

Tells how the colonies began, emphasizes the people themselves, and aims to show what was accomplished by the early colonists.

6. *The Planting of the First Colonies (1562-1733)*, edited by Francis W. Halsey. Volume II of Great Epochs in American History. Funk & Wagnalls Company.

Much good material on the founding of St. Augustine, Jamestown, New England, Pennsylvania, New York, Maryland, Connecticut, and Rhode Island.

7. *Historic Events of Colonial Days*, by R. S. Holland. George W. Jacobs & Co.

Ten interesting chapters dealing with the same number of events occurring between 1630 and 1774.

8. *When America was New*, by Tudor Jenks. Thomas Y. Crowell Company.

Contains material on early life in all the colonies. A book that you will use again and again.

9. *Early Settlements in America*, by John A. Long. Row, Peterson & Company.

A treatment of the early settlements in terms of motives for leaving Europe, finding suitable locations for settlements, building houses, getting food, establishing a government, and dealing with the Indians. An abundance of illustrations and maps.

10. *Rivals for America*, by Francis Parkman. Little, Brown & Company.

Selections from Parkman's *France and England in America*. A vivid, interesting, and gripping account of New France from the beginning, about 1608, to its fall in 1763.

11. *The Colonies*, by Reuben G. Thwaites. Longmans, Green & Company.

A source of information on all phases of colonial history. Especially valuable for a treatment of colonial life in 1700.

12. *The Coming of the Peoples*, by Francis Rolt-Wheeler. George H. Doran Company.

Contains material on such topics as the tragedy of Roanoke, the "starving time," the land of tobacco, the coming of the Jesuits, Hudson and the Dutch, and the Puritan flood. A number of excellent illustrations and a few good maps.

II. A STORY-BOOK LIBRARY

Below are some stories you will enjoy. Have you read any of them? Let each member of the class choose one to read while studying Division Two.

1. *The Hunters of the Hills*, by Joseph Altsheler. D. Appleton and Company.

A story of the great French and Indian War.

2. *The Maid of Old New York*, by Amelia E. Barr. Dodd, Mead & Company.
The rule of Peter Stuyvesant and the capture of New Amsterdam by the English are portrayed in this story.
3. *Soldier Rigdale*, by Beulah M. Dix. The Macmillan Company.
Deals with events connected with the landing of the Pilgrims and the founding of the Plymouth Colony.
4. *Colonial Stories retold from St. Nicholas*. The Century Co.
Stories dealing with the early history of New England, Virginia, and New York. Contains many pictures of colonial coins.
5. *Tommy Tucker on a Plantation*, by Dorothy L. Leetch. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.
A vivid word picture of colonial life in Virginia. Very easy reading. You will like it.
6. *A Maid of Salem Towne*, by Lucy Madison. Penn Publishing Company.
Contains many exciting instances of the witchcraft frenzy in Salem, Massachusetts.
7. *The Colonial Twins of Virginia*, by Lucy F. Perkins. Houghton Mifflin Company.
An interesting tale of colonial times in Virginia. Contains some excellent pictures.
8. *Pilgrim Stories*, by Margaret B. Pumphrey. Rand McNally & Company.
An account of the Pilgrims both in their old homes and in their new homes. Emphasizes their dealings with the Indians. Some good material on their schools and holidays.
9. *Jack Ballister's Fortunes*, by Howard Pyle. The Century Co.
A pirate story. Time: about 1719; place: Virginia, North Carolina, and the sea.
10. *The Boy Captive of Old Deerfield*, by Mary P. Wells Smith. Little, Brown & Company.
Recounts the experiences of the captives taken at Deerfield on February 29, 1704.
11. *The Story of the Pilgrims*, by Roland G. Usher. The Macmillan Company.
Eighteen chapters which portray the life of the Pilgrims in a delightful and interesting manner. You will enjoy reading them while you are studying the Plymouth Colony.
12. *In Colonial Times*, by Mary E. Wilkins. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.
The story of Ann, the "bound" girl: her adventures and her trials in old New England days.

DIVISION TWO

THE FOUNDING OF THE COLONIES AND THE STRUGGLE FOR SUPREMACY IN NORTH AMERICA, 1607-1763

UNIT I. STARTING THE SOUTHERN COLONIES

We have seen how long and dangerous the journey across the Atlantic was in the time of Sir Walter Raleigh; how ships went down, as Sir Humphrey Gilbert's did, with no chance of rescue; and how entire colonies of settlers disappeared, as Raleigh's did, at Roanoke. In the face of such perils and discouragements why should people continue to leave England for America? Fortunately it is not hard to discover why. Many things were happening in England that made life unpleasant, — so unpleasant that many men and women gladly took the risk of going to America.

1. WHY DID PEOPLE LEAVE THE OLD WORLD FOR THE NEW?

The Kings were Tyrants. In the first place, England was ruled by a king and by a legislature called the Parliament. Parliament was supposed to give the people some control of the government, but it really gave them very little. For one thing, only the wealthy people could choose members of Parliament. The common people had nothing to say. For another thing, the kings at this time were tyrants, and even the small powers that Parliament generally had were taken away. It was in 1603 that James I became king. He and his successors believed that they were God's representatives on earth.

They said that it was sinful to refuse to obey the ruler. They even taxed the people without a vote of Parliament, and threw them into jail without a fair trial. Then came a long quarrel between the king and Parliament, and then a war between them. Finally Charles I, who had succeeded James, was seized and tried and put to death as a tyrant. During these years many people were glad to leave England, even if they did so at some risk.

Times were Hard in England. In the next place, it was becoming harder and harder to get a living in England. Prices were going up, but wages were not. Many laborers were out of work, and the laws were severe on men who had no positions. Sometimes they were arrested and whipped or put into jail. Sometimes they were forced to work for a few days for a master, very much as if they were peasants of earlier days. Many such people were glad to escape to America.

Times were hard, also, for children. If they had no parents, they might be sent with a group of American colonists to earn their living as servants.

People sought Religious Freedom. Perhaps more people went to America for the sake of religious freedom than for any other reason.

King James I once said that if the people of England would not support the church that he believed in, he would drive them out of the country. When they insisted on going to their own churches, they were fined, cast into prison, and even put to death. The Quakers, a gentle class of people who hurt nobody, were so unpopular that they were beaten and stoned by mobs on the streets. Between 1628 and 1640 probably twenty thousand colonists left *Old England* for what we know as *New England*. Most of them left to escape from religious persecution.

Conditions were as bad in other parts of Europe as they were in England. This fact explains why so many French and

Germans were ready to leave home. Before they could leave, however, they had to find someone to furnish the money. Although most of the people of England were very poor, a few had riches to spare. They began looking about for ways of using their wealth in order to make still more; we should call it "investing" their money. These people were ready to supply money to send expeditions to America, (1) to find a passage through the continent to the Spice Islands and (2) to discover gold and silver, and later to get lumber and grow grains and tobacco.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Give a two-minute floor talk on the topic "Why People left the Old World for the New between 1600 and 1650."

2. Many people today desire to leave the Old World for the New just as they did between 1600 and 1650. List the reasons for leaving soon after 1600 which still hold today. Add to your list the reasons which exist today that did not exist between 1600 and 1650.

3. Show how the rule of a king who is a tyrant would differ from the rule of one who is not a tyrant.

4. Find five other words which mean the same as *tyrant*.

2. HOW THE VIRGINIA COLONY WAS STARTED

The London Company. In 1606 a group of people living near London formed a company. Each man contributed a sum of money to pay expenses, and the king agreed to give the Company a large area of land in America on which they might start a colony.

Having obtained the king's permission, they fitted out a fleet of three vessels carrying one hundred and twenty persons in addition to the crew. They were to land in Virginia, which had already been named in honor of Elizabeth, the "virgin (or unmarried) queen." A glance at the map will show that the king intended to have the London Company

plant its colony somewhere between the region of Cape Fear and the mouth of Chesapeake Bay. They might extend inland as far as one hundred miles. In order that the Company might know just what rights they had, the king gave them a document called a charter. The charter told them where they might settle a colony and promised the colonists that they should have exactly the same rights that they would have if they remained in England.

The long voyage was successfully accomplished, although several members of the expedition died and the supply of food which could be carried in the small ships of that time was mostly eaten before America was reached.

The Settlement of Jamestown. It was in 1607 that the little fleet sailed up to a small peninsula in a river which they called the James in honor of the king. Here they fell to work at once to construct a fort for protection against the Indians. The region about Jamestown, this first English colony, was attractive. Broad, gentle rivers, such as the Potomac, the York, and the James, flowed into beautiful Chesapeake Bay. The sides of the rivers and the bay were covered with tall trees, and here and there a fertile meadow opened from the water.

The early history of the colony, however, was discouraging :

1. Too many of the colonists were unaccustomed to the hard work which life in a new country makes necessary.

2. Too many were worthless rascals who were sent to America to get them out of England.

3. The valley of the beautiful James was full of malaria.

4. The water was not good.

5. The Indians of the region killed many of the settlers.

Attempts to find gold mines and a passage to the Pacific took energy that was needed for planting corn and other food crops. Within six weeks from the time when the fleet which brought the colonists had returned to England, only forty-

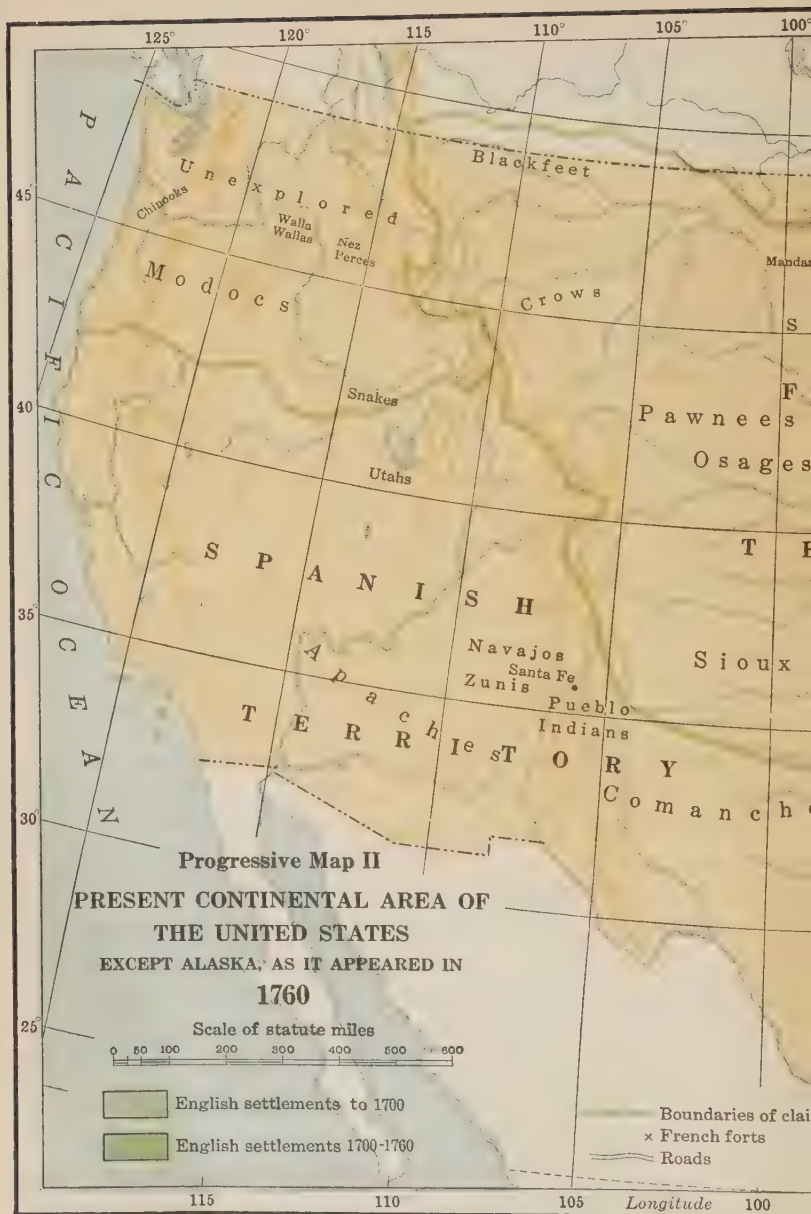
six men were alive. Fever, famine, and the Indians had done away with the rest of them.

Captain John Smith and Sir Thomas Dale. For a time the energy of the leader, Captain John Smith, kept the colony alive. Under his orders the colonists dug a well, built huts to live in, and prepared to grow much-needed food. He urged the Company in London to send over carpenters, blacksmiths, farmers, and masons. When he was wounded in 1609 and had to return to England, the colony lost its most valuable man.

After Smith left there came a period of horrible suffering known as the "starving time." Food supplies gave out. For weeks the colonists nearly starved, barely keeping soul and body together by eating such things as roots, dogs, and mice. Once the few colonists who were left alive were on the point of giving up and returning to England, when they saw an incoming ship laden with men and supplies. With renewed hope they turned back to their task of making a permanent settlement in America. Nothing in all American history is more heroic than the courage of these men in the face of difficulty and death.

The coming of new supplies and fresh colonists kept up the spirit of the settlers who were already in the valley of the James. Women began to come over in 1608, and the first marriage took place in that year. With their coming, real homes could be established. For several years the colony was led for the most part by a soldier, Sir Thomas Dale, who made the colonists work like slaves. Dale was apparently very cruel, but he protected the people from the Indians and saw to it that they had food. Instead of having the colonists work all the time for the Company, Dale gave each of them some land of his own to cultivate. The result was that the men worked better than before.

As the colony prospered, and more and more settlers came over, the people spread out from Jamestown and opened





large farms or plantations up and down the James and in other fertile valleys close by.

The Labor Supply in Virginia. So much was to be done on the numerous plantations, there were so many buildings to be constructed and farms to be tilled, that young workmen were often brought over as "indentured servants." An indentured servant was one who had no money with which to pay for his journey to America, but who was willing to earn his way by serving a master for a period of years. The master paid the cost of the passage and kept the servant in food and clothes, while the servant worked for the master during the two or three or six or seven years of the agreement. As soon as the period of service was over, the indentured servant was free to work wherever he wished. Some of these young people were very able. One of them who came over at a later time was a graduate of an English university.

In 1619 a new labor supply was found. A Dutch ship captain stopped at Jamestown and sold as slaves negroes whom he had stolen in the West Indies. It was a long time, however, before any considerable number of slaves existed in America.

How the Need of a Government was Met. The incoming of so many colonists, and their scattering to the region about Jamestown, brought on the need of a better form of government. If an expedition was to be sent against the Indians, who should decide how many men must be supplied from each plantation? Who should decide how much money should be raised for the expenses of the colony, and how much each person should pay? These and many other questions were continually coming up. Accordingly in 1619 the Company sent over Sir George Yeardley with instructions to put into operation a new plan.

Every plantation was to be allowed to send two persons to a meeting in the church at Jamestown. These persons, together with Yeardley and six men to represent the Com-

pany, made up the legislature and passed such laws as were necessary. In 1619 there were eleven places that were large enough to send representatives, and ten years later there were twenty-four.

In 1624 the king decided to make an end of the London Company and to control Virginia himself by sending over a governor of his own choice. The legislature was allowed to continue. After 1624, therefore, Virginia was what was called a royal colony; that is, its affairs were in the hands of the king rather than in the hands of a company of private individuals.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Master the meaning of the following: charter, colony, colonist, Parliament, royal colony, indentured servant.

2. In a floor talk of about three minutes discuss the importance of the year 1619 in the early history of Virginia.

3. Begin for your notebook a map of the Southern colonies. Locate on the map Jamestown, Cape Fear, Chesapeake Bay, and the James, York, and Potomac rivers.

4. There are excellent accounts of the beginnings of Virginia in Tudor Jenks's *When America was New*, pp. 1-28; JOHN A. Long's *Early Settlements in America*, pp. 125-172; G. C. Eggleston's *Our First Century*, pp. 21-60; and W. F. Gordy's *Colonial Days*, pp. 7-24. Read one or more of these accounts.

5. Tell the story of the beginnings of Virginia to yourself, to the class, or to a member of your family. Make use of the information that you acquire from your reading in books other than your text.

3. WHAT WAS THE ORIGIN OF THE OTHER SOUTHERN COLONIES?

The Beginnings of Maryland. The founding of Maryland was brought about more easily than the founding of Virginia.

Cecilius Calvert, second Baron Baltimore, was an English nobleman of the Roman Catholic religion. Members of his

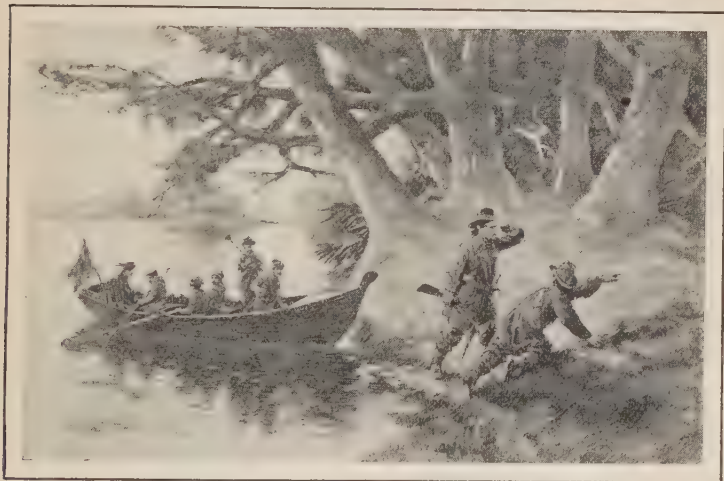
church were being severely treated in England, and Lord Baltimore wished to establish a place in the New World where they could earn a living and practice their religious beliefs without the fear of punishment. Charles the First, who had succeeded King James, was friendly to Lord Baltimore and gave him a huge area of land north of the Potomac River. The colony was named Maryland in honor of the queen, Henrietta Maria (or Mary).

In 1634 the first colonists landed on the shores of the Chesapeake. There were two hundred and twenty of them — twenty "gentlemen" and two hundred laborers. An Indian village with some cleared land was discovered pleasantly situated upon a high spot near the mouth of the Potomac, and the expedition purchased it with articles which the Indians were anxious to possess, such as cloth and tools. A town was laid out and called St. Mary's, and the new settlement prospered from the start. Its location was more healthful than that of Jamestown. More laborers had come over than in the first expedition to Virginia, and the neighboring settlements could be relied upon for trade.

Earning a Living in Maryland. The people of Maryland earned their living as the Virginians did, by raising tobacco. It is significant, however, that even in the first year they grew a crop of corn, some of which they were able to exchange for fish and other supplies from neighbors in the North. Carpenters were in demand for the making of the hogsheads in which the tobacco was packed and shipped. By 1675, when the colony was forty-one years old, the population was about twenty thousand. Like the Virginians, the people of Maryland lived on farms, and it was not until a century after the beginning of the colony that Baltimore, destined to become the great city of Maryland, was even founded.

Government and Religious Toleration. Maryland was what is known as a "proprietary colony." Lord Baltimore and his

successors owned the land — that is, they were the proprietors of it — and appointed a governor and other officers. The proprietor rented farms, or plantations, to colonists who would come over and settle, giving larger plantations to those who brought other settlers with them. Within a short time after the founding of the colony the proprietor allowed a legislature to be established similar to that of Virginia.



THE WAY SETTLERS LANDED IN THE CAROLINAS

One of the most interesting things about the early history of Maryland was the extent of the religious freedom which was allowed there. A famous law of 1649 provided that no person who said he believed in Jesus Christ should be molested on account of his religion. This gave Catholics and Protestants an equal standing and prevented either sect from being fined or put into prison on account of its religious beliefs. This was a great advance over the way the people were treated in England.

The Carolinas. The settlement of the Carolinas began in 1663. In that year the king granted eight of his friends a strip

of land extending from Virginia on the north to the Spanish settlements in Florida on the south. In the northern part of the grant there were already a few settlers. These were Virginia farmers who had gone far away from home in the search for fertile lands along the rivers. They had found what they were seeking in the valley of the Chowan River, which flows into Albemarle Sound. It was not until 1670 that the proprietors of Carolina landed an expedition of colonists. In that year a small group of settlers reached the harbor where Charleston now stands. The site was a happy choice, for the soil was good and the harbor an excellent one. In spite of these favorable conditions, however, the growth of Charleston was slow. French Protestants, called "Huguenots," arrived and became an important addition to the southern part of Carolina.

The Early History of the Carolinas. Life in the Carolinas during the early days was far from quiet. Indians, and Spaniards from Florida, kept the colonists in constant danger. Pirates, particularly a certain "Blackbeard," made raids along the coast. Moreover, there were differences between the northern and southern parts of the Carolinas:

1. The southern part produced rice and indigo and used much slave labor; in fact, there were more blacks than whites there at an early date.

2. The northern part produced tobacco, tar, pitch, and turpentine, and few slaves were used.

3. The population of the northern part grew much faster than that of the southern part.

4. Besides these conditions, there was a distance of three hundred miles between the settlements on the Chowan and the settlement at Charleston.

In the course of time it seemed advisable for the proprietors of Carolina to give up their control to the king. This was done in 1729. The colony was divided into North and South

Carolina, each with a governor appointed by the king, and each with its own legislature elected by the people.

Georgia. Between Charleston and the Spanish settlements on the Florida peninsula was a wide unsettled area. In 1732 James Oglethorpe and some other Englishmen obtained from King George II the right to this territory, which was called Georgia. It was Oglethorpe's plan to open a colony for the benefit of people who had been put into prison in England on account of debt.¹

The city of Savannah was founded in 1733 by a band under Oglethorpe's direction, but further growth was extremely slow.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Explain the difference between a royal colony and a proprietary colony.

2. Tell the class how one could secure a large plantation in Maryland in 1675.

3. Explain what is meant by religious toleration and show what the law of 1649 did.

4. Show in what respects the First Amendment to our Constitution (Appendix B) differs from the Maryland law of 1649.

5. Continue your map of the Southern colonies. Add to it the Chowan River, Albemarle Sound, Charleston, and Savannah; also show the general boundary of each of the four Southern colonies.

6. Read one or more of the following accounts:

a. "The Settlement of Maryland and the Carolinas," in Marie L. Herdman's *Story of the United States*, chap. xv.

b. "The Settlement of Maryland," in John A. Long's *Early Settlements in America*, chap. x.

c. "The Peopling of Carolina," in G. C. Eggleston's *Our First Century*, chap. xiii.

¹ At that time it was common to put people into prison if they owed any money which they could not pay. Frequently people were imprisoned for trifling amounts of money, and the families of the prisoners suffered greatly because they were left without support.

d. "Blackbeard the Pirate," in L. B. Evans's *America First*, pp. 118-120.

7. Make an outline for a story of starting the Southern colonies. Using it as a guide, tell the story to the class or to a friend.

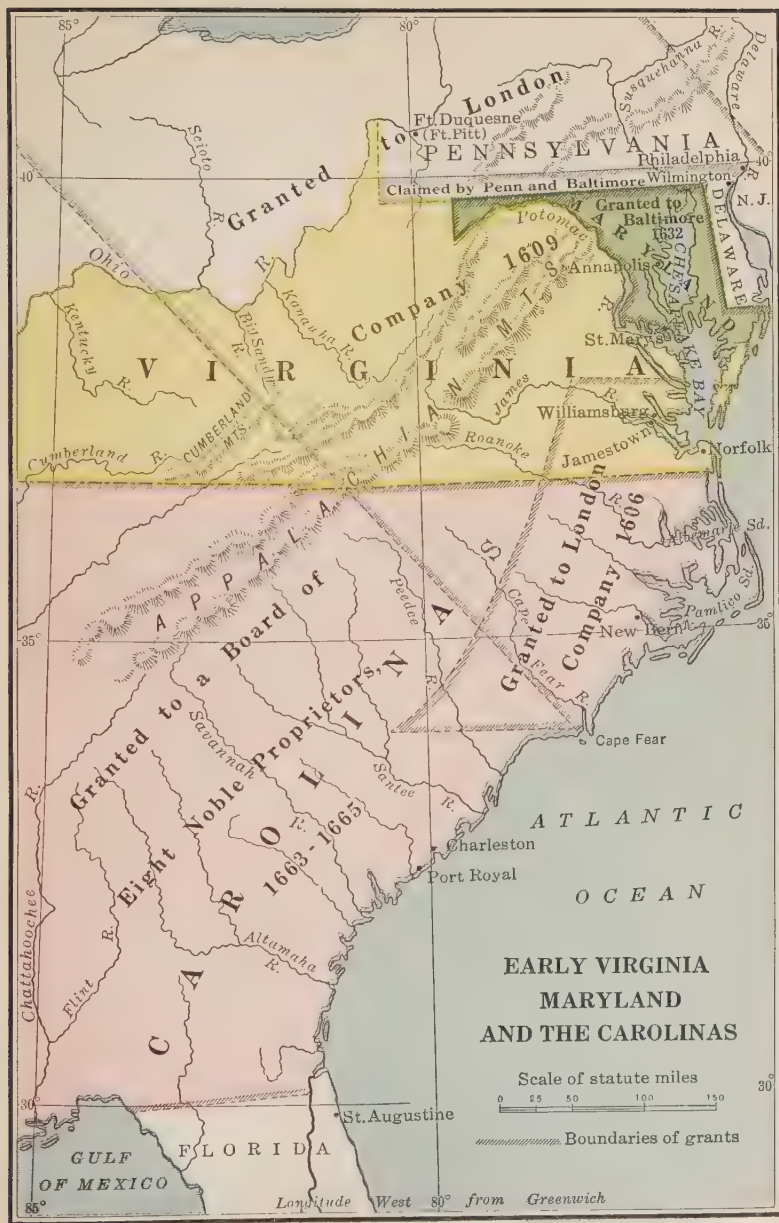
4. HOW THE PEOPLE IN THE SOUTHERN COLONIES LIVED ABOUT 1700

Numbers and Classes of People. A few years before 1700 the population of the Southern colonies was estimated as follows: Maryland, 20,000; Virginia, 58,000; the Carolinas, 5000. In other words, the Southern colonies were no longer made up of small groups of half-starving men and women; they were well-established and sometimes prospering settlements.

Most of the people were English, but here and there were a few French, a few Germans, and some Scotch-Irish.

The king's officers and the owners of the larger plantations were the most important class in the Southern colonies. The storekeepers and the owners of small farms were more numerous but had less influence. Less important still were the indentured servants, who sometimes led a sorry life at the hands of cruel masters. At the bottom of the scale of the classes were the negro slaves. There were thousands of them in all the Southern colonies—six thousand in Virginia alone in 1700.

The Plantation. The industrial life of the Southern colonies centered in the plantation. There was the great house in which the planter lived, a group of barns, and sometimes shops in which necessary articles were made. As most of the plantations were on the rivers, vessels could come to the planter's landing direct from England, the West Indies, and neighboring colonies, bringing needed supplies and taking away such things as the planter had for export. The supplies needed on the plantation were manufactured articles of every sort, such as tables, chairs, stools, wooden bowls, and brooms, along with such necessities of life as food and clothing. A few enter-



prising planters here and there kept a few negroes who were trained to manufacture a number of articles by hand. Now and then there also came to the plantation a white workman to do such jobs as the slaves were unable to perform.

Agriculture was the chief industry. The one big crop was tobacco, especially in Maryland and Virginia; rice and indigo were important products in the Carolinas; tar, pitch, and



WESTOVER, ONE OF THE FIRST COLONIAL MANSIONS IN VIRGINIA,
NEAR RICHMOND

Built by William Byrd in 1734. (Photograph by Ewing Galloway)

turpentine in North Carolina and corn and cotton in South Carolina were also common products; cattle-raising was an industry in both the Carolinas. Whenever the planter grew more than he could use, he shipped the surplus to other colonies, to the West Indies, or to England. In exchange he received the things he could not grow or make himself.

Religion and Education. There was a variety of churches in the Southern colonies by 1700. There were Presbyterians, Baptists, and Quakers in many places, and a considerable num-

ber of Catholics in Maryland. Everywhere there was the Episcopal Church, or Church of England, which was especially strong in Virginia.

Education was limited indeed. In Maryland and North Carolina the law required all teachers to belong to the Episcopal Church. As most people belonged to the other churches, they took little interest in the schools. There were only two or three dozen in all Virginia, but in 1693 the famous College of William and Mary was founded. Williamsburg, where the college was situated, was also the capital of Virginia; hence it became the center of much of the life of the colony, and to it went legislators, students, and leaders of the colony who wished to keep in touch with affairs all over Virginia. More common than the public schools were private schools, where a few pupils were cared for, and private tutors, who sometimes lived on large plantations and taught the children of the owners. Most people had almost no educational opportunities at all.

Government in the Southern Colonies. The Southern colonies had governments which were somewhat like that of England. In each colony there was a governor, who corresponded to the king. There was a colonial legislature resembling the Parliament in England.

The governor was the most important officer in the colony. Sometimes he ruled justly and was popular; sometimes he was tyrannical and was hated. Generally the colonial legislature had the power to levy taxes or to refuse to do so. If there were no taxes, there was no money for the governor's salary; hence the governors were inclined to get the favor of the legislature if possible.

As in England, the government was in the hands of the wealthy classes. The common folks had nothing to say, for the idea that all persons when twenty-one years of age should have the right to vote had not yet been thought of.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Draw a picture for your notebook in which you portray life on a Virginia plantation about 1700.
2. Read the chapter on "White and Black Slavery," in G. C. Eggleston's *Our First Century*, pp. 219-228. Tell the class what it contains that is not found in your text.
3. There is an excellent treatment of life in the Southern colonies in 1700 in *The Colonies*, by R. G. Thwaites, chap. v. Read it if possible.
4. Give a floor talk of about five minutes in length on the topic "Life in the Southern Colonies about 1700." In your talk follow an outline you make after reading the text and all other reading you are able to do.

UNIT II. THE BEGINNINGS OF NEW ENGLAND

About the time that Jamestown was being established with so much danger and continued with so much suffering, another colony was being founded far to the north. In order to understand the reasons for the beginning of the new colony, it is necessary to know a few things that were going on in England.

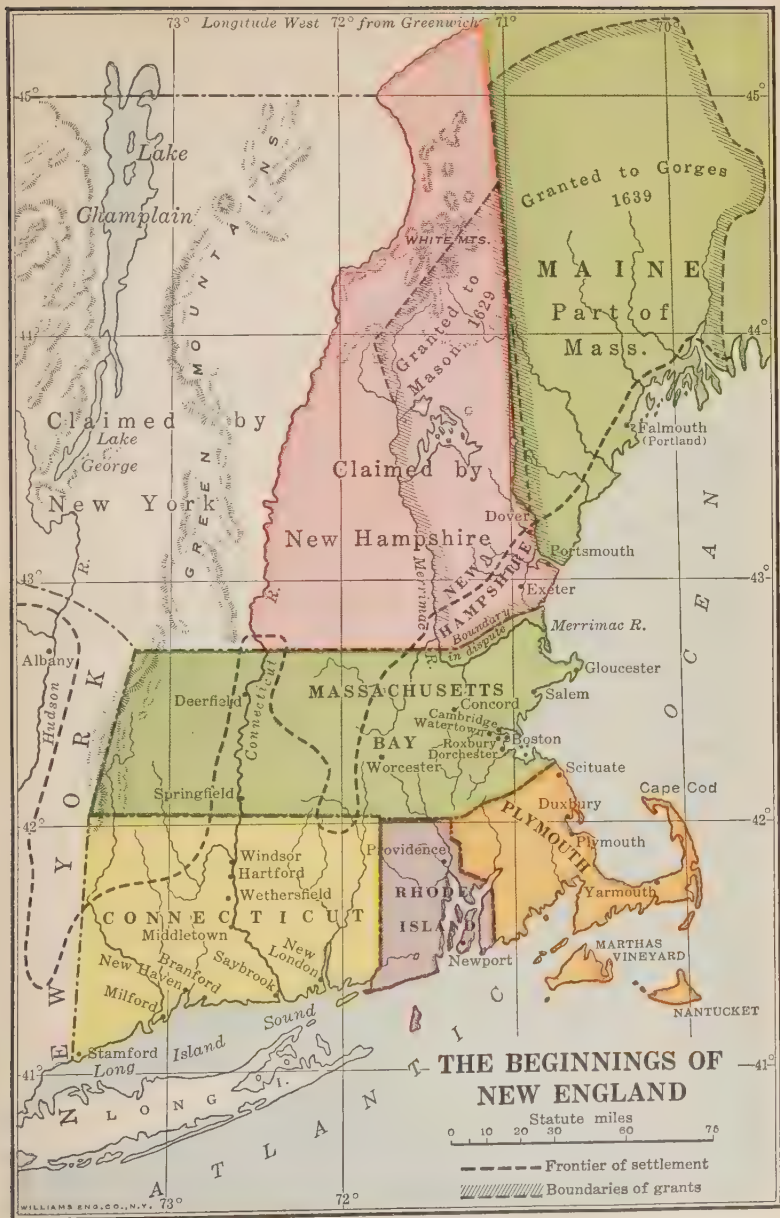
The Catholics and the Protestants in England during the years when America was being colonized were at swords' points most of the time. Nor was this all. Many Protestants felt that their own church needed a change, or purification. These people were called Puritans. There were also many who thought that any group of people had the right to set up a separate church of its own, without being bothered by the king or by anybody else. These people were called Separatists or Independents. They were much disliked by both Queen Elizabeth and King James. Their meetings were broken up, their members fined, their property taken away from them, and their leaders in some cases imprisoned and even hanged. For these reasons many of the Separatists fled

to Holland to escape persecution. About the time that the Jamestown expedition was approaching the shore of Chesapeake Bay a congregation from the town of Scrooby made its way across the English Channel and finally settled in Leyden. But the members of the congregation were not contented in Holland: (1) they had to work extremely hard to make a living; (2) they found their children becoming Hollanders instead of Englishmen and being taken into the Dutch army. They therefore decided to emigrate to the New World, where they might worship with less danger of persecution and could also remain English.

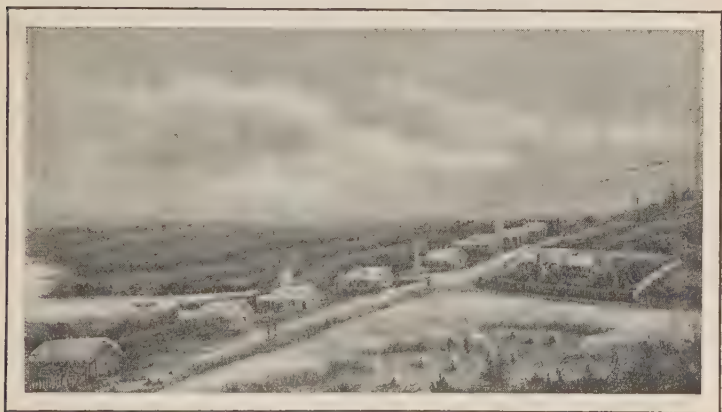
1. HOW THE PLYMOUTH AND MASSACHUSETTS BAY COLONIES BEGAN

The Voyage of the *Mayflower* and the Founding of Plymouth. In the autumn of 1620 seventy-three men and twenty-nine women started for America in the *Mayflower*. The ship was too small for so many passengers. Some fell sick, and one died on the way. On November 21 they saw the shore at Cape Cod, although they had expected to land nearer the Virginia Colony. The dangers of the sea were so great that they decided to go no farther, and anchor was dropped in what is now the bay of Provincetown. Before making a settlement the colonists drew up an agreement generally called the Mayflower Compact, by which they agreed to obey laws passed by the majority of the group. Then they elected John Carver as their first governor.

While most of the colonists remained in the ship, Captain Miles Standish and a small party explored the region in an attempt to discover the best place for a settlement. After a search they came upon Plymouth Harbor, which seemed desirable in every way: (1) fresh water was to be found there; (2) some open fields were available; (3) and the harbor itself was (and is) a broad, beautiful, sheltered bay bounded by low,



wooded hills. A more attractive spot could hardly be found. Oddly enough, Captain John Smith had once sailed along this very region, had called it New England, and had even entered this same bay and named it Plymouth. By an odd coincidence the colonists now gave it the same name, because Plymouth, England, was the last port they had seen when leaving home. It was December 26 by the time the *Mayflower* had been brought across Cape Cod Bay from Provincetown.



PLYMOUTH AS IT PROBABLY WAS IN 1622

A photograph of a model made from early descriptions of the settlement.
Copyright by A. S. Burbank

Suffering in Early Plymouth. The sufferings of the Plymouth colonists recall the "starving time" in Virginia. So many were sick that at one time only six or seven of the entire group were well enough to care for the rest. But, as William Bradford, one of the ablest colonists, said, "All great undertakings must be both enterprised and overcome by courages." "Courages" the Plymouth Colony certainly stood in need of.

Huts to live in had first to be constructed. As soon as spring opened, corn was planted in some fields which had

formerly been used by the Indians. More settlers kept coming over, and these had to be provided for. Happily the few Indians about Plymouth were friendly, and one of them, Squanto, stayed at the settlement and gained the good will of the colonists by showing them how to plant a corn crop.¹



INTERIOR OF THE FORT AT PLYMOUTH SOON AFTER 1620

From "The Pilgrims," one of The Chronicles of America Photoplays.
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In 1623 each settler was given a piece of land to cultivate for himself, and a large crop resulted that fall. It was needed, for two shiploads of new colonists arrived. In the autumn, when the crop was gathered, a day of thanksgiving was set

¹ In 1621 a messenger from the Narraganset Indians was sent to Plymouth with a bundle of arrows tied about with a snake skin. The governor sent back word that if the Indians preferred war to peace, they could begin when they wished. He sent another messenger with the snake skin filled with bullets. No war resulted, but the colonists took care to put fences round their houses for protection. Most of the Indians who had earlier lived near Plymouth had been killed by an epidemic of disease, perhaps the smallpox or the measles.

apart, the beginning of the holiday which is now observed in late November all over the country.

The coming of new settlers year after year, and the necessity of spreading out from the original settlement in order to find fertile land for cultivation, caused the founding of town after town in the region about. As early as 1632 Duxbury was formed, and then Scituate and others. Since corn and other food crops did not use up the soil as quickly as tobacco, or require such large fields, the settlers lived nearer together than they did in Virginia.

The government of each of the new towns was to a large extent in the hands of the people, who met to elect officers and choose representatives to go to Plymouth to make laws for the colony. Plymouth contained the residence of the governor and remained the center of the group of villages.

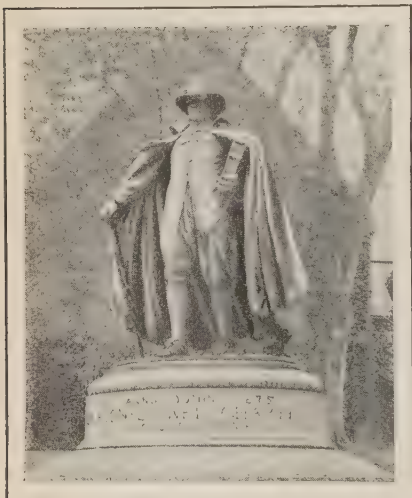
Beginnings of the Massachusetts Bay Colony. It has already been said that settlers from Plymouth spread out into the surrounding region in search of new and fertile land. In particular there was a settlement at Salem which attracted some members of the older colony as well as immigrants from England. The great beginnings of Massachusetts, however, came in 1630, at Boston. A group of Englishmen known as the Massachusetts Bay Company obtained a strip of land running from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, which was supposed to be near at hand. The strip was to extend along the coast from a point three miles south of the Charles River to a point three miles north of the Merrimack.

The Massachusetts Bay Company contained many men of property and ability. In 1630 the Company decided to move bodily to their lands in New England. Nine hundred people, making eleven shiploads, settled on the shores of Boston Harbor as their future home. Their leader and governor was a wealthy gentleman named John Winthrop, to whose ability much of the early success of the colony was due.

As in Virginia, food was scarce and shelter from the winter insufficient, so that two hundred of the settlers soon died. The winter of 1630-1631 was bitterly cold, moreover, and only the arrival of ships with food supplies prevented a "starving time." In the search for land and good drinking-water the

colonists spread out from Boston and started settlements which grew into our present Dorchester, Wattertown, Roxbury, and other towns and cities.

Beginning in 1633 great numbers of English colonists came over to Massachusetts. King Charles I was in the midst of a bitter quarrel with his people at the time, and thousands of them preferred the freedom of life in New England, even if there were dangers to be met. By 1643 the population of the settlements around Massachusetts Bay was more



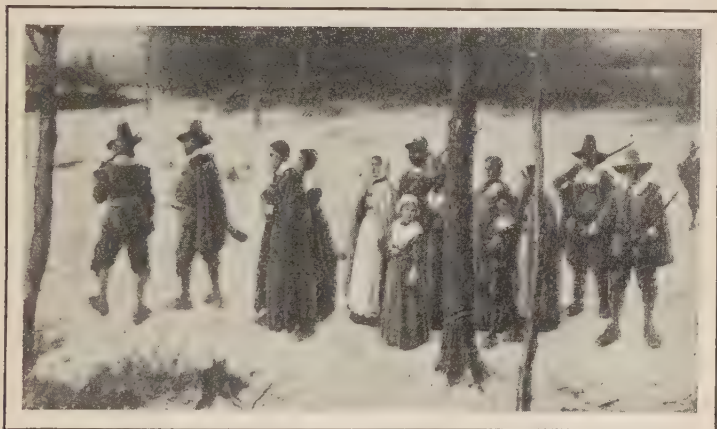
DEACON CHAPIN

A typical Puritan as imagined by Augustus Saint-Gaudens, the American sculptor.
Photograph by Clifton Johnson

than sixteen thousand, a greater number than was found in all the other English colonies put together.

Church and Government. The Massachusetts Bay Company, which controlled the settlements around Boston, was in the hands of Governor Winthrop and a few other men, twelve in all. They had power to govern any people within the limits of their grant of land. As the colony grew, the people naturally wished to have a share in making their own laws and selecting their own officers. So it was agreed that men

might be admitted into the Company if they were members of any of the churches in the Massachusetts towns. As all these churches were of the same sort — Puritan churches — nobody could take part in the government of Massachusetts unless he was ready to say that he held the same religious beliefs that Winthrop and his friends did. Today this seems rather stern and narrow, but it must be remembered that the



PILGRIMS GOING TO CHURCH

From a painting by G. H. Boughton

Massachusetts Bay Company emigrated to New England at great expense in order to set up Puritan churches. They saw that if they did not keep both Church and government in their own hands, their whole idea in coming to America might go for nothing.¹

¹ At one time the Massachusetts Bay Colony was excited by the arrival of a few Quakers. They were members of an English church which did not agree in all points with the Puritans. One of their beliefs was that it was wrong to fight, and so they opposed wars. The Massachusetts Quakers were driven out of the colony; and when they returned later, some of them were executed. One of these was a woman. After a few such executions the people of Massachusetts Bay thought it was a mistake to be so cruel to the members of another church. The laws were changed, and Quakers were never again killed in Massachusetts for their religious beliefs.

As the number of towns increased, it became necessary to have a representative system like that begun in Virginia in 1619, and each village was allowed to send representatives to a legislature called the Great and General Court. In 1644 the legislature divided into two branches, thus starting the system of legislatures composed of two houses which is everywhere followed in the United States today. For many years, then, only a comparatively small number of people had control of Massachusetts Bay, but it is generally agreed that this small group was an unusually able one.

The separate towns in Massachusetts early took control of their own local affairs, and to this day the small New England villages have their own "town meetings," where taxes are decided upon for keeping up the roads and schools and for other purposes, and where town officials are elected.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Point out in a three-minute floor talk the religious conditions in Old England which led to the settlement of New England.
2. Compare and contrast the location of Jamestown and Plymouth as desirable places for the starting of a colony.
3. Show why the Massachusetts Bay Colony was more prosperous from the first than Plymouth and Jamestown.
4. Start a map of the beginnings of New England for your notebook. Show on it Plymouth, Cape Cod, Duxbury, Scituate, Boston, Salem, the Charles River, and the Merrimack River.
5. Master the meaning of "town meeting," "Mayflower Compact."
6. Read one of the following excellent treatments of early settlements in New England:
 - a. "The Story of the Pilgrims" in John A. Long's *Early Settlements in America*, chaps. i-iii.
 - b. "The First New England Colonies," in G. C. Eggleston's *Our First Century*, chap. vi.

c. "The First New Englanders," in Tudor Jenks's *When America was New*, chap. xi.

d. "The Pilgrims at Plymouth" and "The Puritans in Massachusetts," in *Colonial Days*, by W. F. Gordy, pp. 53-83.

2. WHAT WAS THE ORIGIN OF THE OTHER NEW ENGLAND COLONIES?

Rhode Island. Rhode Island was an offshoot of Massachusetts and was started in a peculiar way. There was a preacher in Massachusetts named Roger Williams who disagreed with the beliefs of the church there. For one thing, he believed that the government and the church should be separate, so that any man could go to any church that he pleased. For another thing, he thought that nobody had any right to occupy land in America unless it had been bought from the Indians. He was told that he must leave Massachusetts. Thereupon he went down into what is now Rhode Island, bought some land from the natives, and started a settlement at Providence in 1636.

About the same time a Mrs. Anne Hutchinson was driven from the colony on account of her religious beliefs. With her friends she started the town of Portsmouth on an island just south of Providence. People in the Rhode Island settlements had the great advantage of being able to believe in any religion which suited them, and for some years each little group took care of itself without any officer sent over from England. At length, however, the several settlements which Roger Williams, Mrs. Hutchinson, and others from Massachusetts had established in the region of Providence were made into a colony named the Rhode Island and Providence Plantations.¹

¹ Mrs. Hutchinson's life was full of adventure. After her stirring experiences in Massachusetts Bay and after her work as a colonist in founding Portsmouth, she moved to a spot near New York City. Her family, including her children, grandchildren, and servants, were attacked by Indians shortly after moving to the new place, and nearly all of them, including Mrs. Hutchinson, were killed. This was in 1641.

Why and When was Connecticut Founded? Connecticut was another offshoot of Massachusetts Bay. In 1636 the Reverend Thomas Hooker left New Towne (now called Cambridge), in Massachusetts, with his family and many of his friends. Slowly they made their way over to the Connecticut valley. Other people followed them from the villages about Boston, and thus Hartford, Windsor, and other towns were founded. Another settlement, named Saybrook, was started at the mouth of the Connecticut River by some English noblemen.

Anybody who visits this part of the Connecticut River valley today and sees the fertile, level farms can easily see why Hooker and his followers might wish to settle there.

Like the colonists of Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay the Connecticut River settlers took care of themselves without much help from England. In 1639 they drew up a plan for governing themselves, putting down in black and white who should vote, how often the legislature should meet, how the governor should be elected, and so on.

The year before Hooker and his friends established their government a group of other colonists from Boston had landed on the shore of Long Island Sound and founded New Haven.

None of the settlers in and around the Connecticut valley had any special right there. They merely took the land, cultivated it, and set up a government. In 1662, however, the king of England granted a charter which established the colony of Connecticut, and made it include New Haven, as well as the settlements of the Connecticut valley.¹

¹ In 1687 the king sent over Edmund Andros to do several things, among them to take away the Connecticut charter. Andros went to Connecticut and had an argument with the Assembly in Hartford one evening as to whether he had the right to take away the charter. Suddenly, according to an old story, the candles were blown out, and somebody seized the charter, ran out with it, and hid it in the hollow of a great oak. After two years Andros was called back to England, and the Connecticut people were allowed to govern themselves under their charter. The big oak tree, generally called the Charter Oak, stood until 1856, when it was blown down. A tablet now marks the spot.

New Hampshire and Maine. While settlements were being made in Rhode Island and Connecticut, other villages were being started north of Massachusetts Bay. The ownership of the land was in dispute :

1. Captain John Mason claimed part of it under the name of "New Hampshire."

2. Sir Ferdinando Gorges claimed part of it as "Maine."

3. The Massachusetts Bay Company claimed all of it under their grant of a strip from south of the Charles to north of the Merrimack.

For a time, therefore, the towns in Maine and New Hampshire remained under the government and the protection of Massachusetts. New Hampshire was then made a separate colony under the control of the king, but Massachusetts purchased Maine from Gorges and kept it until 1820.

The New England Confederation. The Massachusetts and Connecticut colonists had scarcely got well started when two enemies appeared : some Dutch traders settled in the Connecticut valley, and the Indians began to get restless.

In the face of these dangers Massachusetts, Plymouth, and Connecticut, including New Haven, formed an alliance called the New England Confederation. Each of the colonies agreed to send some soldiers in case of any attack. In the great war of the Confederation against King Philip, the Indian chief, in 1675-1676, the power of the savages in New England was ended. The Confederation itself lasted for forty-one years, from 1643 to 1684. It was the first attempt at a union among the English colonies in America.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Continue your map of the beginnings of New England. Show Providence, Portsmouth, New Towne (Cambridge), the Connecticut River, Hartford, Windsor, Saybrook, Long Island, New Haven, New Hampshire, and Maine.

2. Compare the New England colonies with the Southern colonies in respect to the object of settlement and the character of the settlers.

3. Read one of the following :

a. G. C. Eggleston, *Our First Century*, chaps. viii, ix, on Connecticut and Rhode Island and on the New England Confederation.

b. John A. Long, *Early Settlements in America*, chap. ix, on the growth of New England.

c. W. F. Gordy, *Colonial Days*, pp. 98-149, on Connecticut, the Pequot War, King Philip's War, and the Salem witchcraft.

4. Tell in one complete story the beginning of New England. Make an outline first of the points you wish to cover.

3. HOW THE PEOPLE IN THE NEW ENGLAND COLONIES LIVED ABOUT 1700

Numbers and Classes of People. Nobody knows just how many people there were in New England by 1700. Probably there were between thirty thousand and one hundred thousand. Nearly all lived within fifty miles of the ocean and in the valleys of such rivers as the Merrimack, the Charles, and the Connecticut. More than half of them lived in Massachusetts (which included Maine). Practically all of them were English.

The most important people were the government officials, the prosperous merchants, the lawyers, and the ministers. Most farmers had to be content with a modest living, as New England soil was none too fertile. There were indentured servants, as there were in the South, and slaves too, especially in Rhode Island.

How the Early New Englander made his Living. There was a greater variety in New England industry than was to be found in the South.

Most people, of course, had farms. From the coasts of Massachusetts and Maine went small vessels on trips to the famous fishing grounds near Newfoundland. Whalers went to

distant seas, venturing even across the Arctic Circle. Lumber was so plentiful, and tall, straight trees for masts were so easily found, that shipbuilding grew fast. More vessels were built than could be used in New England, so that they were sold in other colonies and even in Old England and European countries.

New Englanders were already establishing a reputation as traders. They sent their own lumber, fish, whale oil, and



JOHN COTTON, SPIRITUAL LEADER OF THE PURITANS, CONDUCTS SUNDAY WORSHIP

From "The Puritans," one of The Chronicles of America Photoplays. Copyright. By permission, Yale University Press

whalebone to the West Indies; and they brought rice and sugar from the South, and grain and flour from the colonies where those goods were produced.

Nor did the Yankee sailor stay close to his own shores. He picked up manufactured goods in England, wine in the Madeira Islands, and sugar, molasses, and cotton in the West Indies. Gloucester, Salem, Boston, and Nantucket became known as the home ports of the New England skippers.

Religion and Education. It would be difficult to exaggerate the importance of religion in the early life of New England. The church was the center of the life of the town or village, and the minister was the most important citizen ; his opinions were given from the pulpit in a long sermon on Sunday and were listened to with the greatest respect.

Most churches were Congregational. They chose their own ministers and deacons. Every taxpayer, however, except in



HARVARD COLLEGE IN 1767

From an engraving by Paul Revere

the Rhode Island towns, had to contribute to the salary of the minister and to help pay the other expenses of running the church.

Few people had a chance to get much education. Harvard College was started in 1636 and Yale in 1701. The purpose of these institutions was chiefly the training of ministers. In 1647 Massachusetts passed a law requiring every town to have a grammar school, but probably the law was not carried out everywhere.

Government in New England. The government of such a colony as Massachusetts was in the hands of a governor and a legislature. Matters concerning the whole colony were taken up by them, such as the amount of taxes to be collected and the raising of soldiers to fight the Indians.

Most affairs were taken up by the people of the villages, however, in their town meetings. Here the citizens met and chose their "selectmen," who saw to it that the votes of the meeting were carried out. If a new road was to be built, an old one to be abandoned, or others repaired, the town meeting voted just what should be done. The town took care of the poor who had no place in which to live. It decided *how the taxes should be raised* after the colonial legislature had decided how much each town must pay. And it managed the schools and paid for them.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Compare the New England colonies with the Southern colonies in respect to religion, education, economic life, and government.

2. Show, with reasons, where you would rather have lived in 1700: on a Virginia plantation or in a Massachusetts town.

3. Thwaites, in his book *The Colonies*, chap. viii, has an excellent account of life in New England in 1700. Do not miss reading this.

4. The following appeared in an account of New England published in London in 1643. Read it and tell the meaning of as many lines as you can.

After God had carried us safe to New-England
And wee had builded our houses
Provided necessaries for our liveli-hood
Rear'd convenient places for Gods worship
And setled the Civill Government
One of the next things we longed for
And looked after was to advance *Learning*
And perpetuate it to Posterity
Dreading to leave an illiterate Ministry
To the Churches, when our present Ministers
Shall lie in the Dust.

UNIT III. THE BEGINNINGS OF THE MIDDLE COLONIES

New York, New Jersey, Delaware, and Pennsylvania are generally known as the middle colonies. Geographically, of course, they were between the New England and the Southern colonies. For this reason they had some of the characteristics of the North and some of the South. They had a more mixed population than the neighboring colonies had, and they took their ideas of government partly from the North and partly from the South. Even today these states are frequently called the middle states.

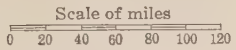
1. HOW DID NEW YORK AND NEW JERSEY BEGIN?

What was the Origin of New York? The beginning of what we now call New York was due to the Dutch — the people of the Netherlands, or Holland (as the country is often called).

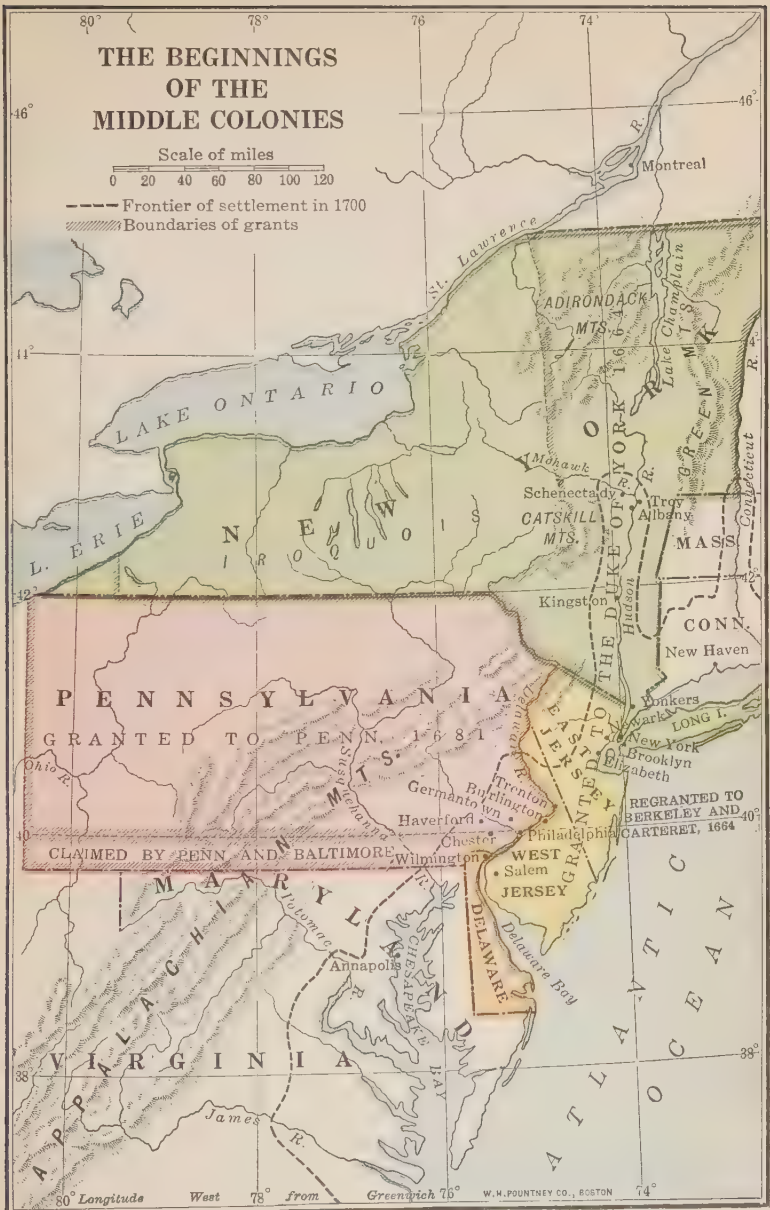
An Englishman named Henry Hudson, who was employed by the Dutch, sailed along the North American coast from Newfoundland to Virginia in search of a passage through America to China. He found the river which today bears his name and sailed up it as far as where Albany now stands. Then he discovered that the river did not lead to Asia, but into the Iroquois Indian country.

Some merchants known as the Dutch West India Company saw a good chance to start trade, and they bought an island at the mouth of the Hudson from the natives for twenty-four dollars' worth of goods. Here they built a small settlement in 1623, naming it New Amsterdam. We know it as the city of New York. At that time Holland was among the most important trading nations in the world, and the ships of the West India Company went up the Hudson and gave the Indians cloth, ornaments, and guns in exchange for furs. A few Dutch settlers got large grants along the river as far up as Albany.

THE BEGINNINGS OF THE MIDDLE COLONIES



--- Frontier of settlement in 1700
 // Boundaries of grants



PENNSYLVANIA

GRANTED TO PENN. 1681

CLAIMED BY PENN. AND BALTIMORE

NEW JERSEY

REGRANTED TO
BERKELEY AND
CARTERET, 1664

WEST
JERSEY

MARYLAND

DELAWARE

80° Longitude

West

78°

from

Greenwich

76°

W.H. POUNTNEY CO., BOSTON

74°

The English and the Dutch. But the Dutch were being surrounded by the English. There were, of course, the settlements in the Connecticut valley and at New Haven, and the English were also commencing to build small villages along the eastern end of Long Island; hence there were plenty of English settlements close at hand when Charles II of England gave his brother, the Duke of York, a claim to the lands which the Dutch had occupied. The date of the grant was 1664.



NEW YORK IN 1681

At the left, the mayor's house; at the right, the town pump. From an old painting. (Photograph by Ewing Galloway)

The Dutch had a claim to the land (1) because of Hudson's discovery and (2) because they had made a settlement there. The English also had a claim (1) because of Cabot's discovery, back in 1497, and (2) because New Amsterdam was inside the territory already granted by the king to the colonists in Virginia and in New England. The Duke of York accordingly decided to fight the Dutch.

In 1664 he sailed up to New Amsterdam with three shiploads of soldiers. The Dutch governor, Peter Stuyvesant, was in a tight fix. The English were all around him, and

his own people disliked him. He was compelled to surrender without a struggle.¹

The name "New Amsterdam" was changed to New York in honor of the duke, and the power of the Dutch came to an end. A few years later England and Holland were at war, and the Dutch recaptured the city and held it for two years. At the end of the war it was returned to the English, but to the present day many a New York family name recalls the days of the Dutch occupation before 1664. "Schuyler," "Stuyvesant," and "Van Rensselaer" are examples. There are towns too which still bear Dutch names.²

What were the "Jerseys"? The land which now makes up the state of New Jersey was included in the grant given the Duke of York. In 1664 York presented two of his friends with this great property. Soon afterwards it was divided into two parts, East New Jersey and West New Jersey. The name "Jersey" was chosen because one of the owners had lived on the island of Jersey, near England. The Jerseys were settled mainly by New England people and by a few colonists from Old England.

After a time both the Jerseys were purchased by some Quakers, among them a William Penn, and the two colonies came under the control of one group of owners.

¹ Stuyvesant was a hot-tempered man who had lost a leg in the service of the Dutch. He laid down rules which the people did not like, and they soon came to hate him. Men who got into quarrels on the streets were fined heavily or put into prison for months. Nobody was allowed to carry on trade in the colony unless Stuyvesant gave him permission and unless he paid Stuyvesant money, which the governor kept for himself. Quakers and other people whose religion Stuyvesant did not like were punished severely. Some of the things which he did were very wise and necessary, but others were not. At any rate, the people did not like him, and it is not strange that they would not fight for him when he needed their help.

² Governor Stuyvesant himself spent the last part of his life in New York. The street now known as the Bowery gets its name from the fact that it led to the governor's farm, or "great bowery," as the Dutch called it.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Prepare a short floor talk on the causes leading to the settlement of New York.

2. *Resolved*, That the Dutch had a better claim to New York than the English. Choose sides and debate this question.

3. Read John A. Long's story of New Netherland in his *Early Settlements in America*, chap. xii.

4. There is an interesting treatment of "Old Dutch Times in New York" in *Explorers and Settlers*, edited by C. L. Barstow, pp. 171-184. You will enjoy reading this. See also "The Dutch and New Netherland," in *Colonial Days*, by W. F. Gordy, pp. 151-171.

2. WHAT WAS THE ORIGIN OF PENNSYLVANIA AND DELAWARE?

William Penn and Pennsylvania. William Penn was an English Quaker. The king owed Penn's father a considerable sum of money which had not been paid at the time of the father's death. The king then agreed to pay the debt by giving young Penn a grant of land in America, naming it Pennsylvania, which means "Penn's woods." This was in 1681. Penn himself did not like the name, because it appeared boastful to have his name attached to the new land.

In spite of its name, however, Penn was extremely glad to have the new land. He had already been imprisoned in England because of his Quaker beliefs, and so had hundreds of others; and it was his idea to found a colony where Quakers could live in peace. The colony grew rapidly, for the following reasons:

1. The Dutch, Swedes, and English already there were protected by Penn.

2. Penn wrote an account of his colony which was translated into several languages. This advertisement urged carpenters, shoemakers, and farmers to go to Pennsylvania.

3. Quakers from England and from other countries were attracted by the promise of religious freedom and cheap land.

4. Many people from what we know as Germany desired land and also relief from religious persecution. They came to Pennsylvania and founded Germantown.

Peace in Pennsylvania. Penn was a peaceful man and was careful to treat the Indians in a fair and gentle way. The result was that the Indians liked him and gave his colonists little trouble. His most important settlement was named Philadelphia, which means "brotherly love."¹ He allowed the people to help decide as to what kind of government should be set up, although he was to be the owner, or "proprietor," himself. On account of its healthful situation there was no such suffering in Pennsylvania as there was in the first Virginia colonies.²

Delaware. The shores of Delaware Bay were occupied first by the Swedes, but were later captured and owned by the Dutch, and then by the Duke of York after his defeat of the Dutch. In 1682 Penn obtained the region from the duke and made it part of Pennsylvania. As this arrangement proved to be unsatisfactory, three counties in Pennsylvania were made into the separate colony of Delaware, although keeping the same kind of government that Pennsylvania had and having the same governor.

¹ Under Penn's direction the town of Philadelphia was laid out with broad streets running at right angles to one another. He hoped to make the spot beautiful by having each house surrounded by a garden. Within four years of the time when Penn got his grant from the king, Philadelphia had about six hundred houses. Many of them were built of brick.

² Penn was not so successful in keeping peace with his white neighbors. The lands given to Lord Baltimore for Maryland and to Penn for Pennsylvania overlapped. Each proprietor wished to get all the land he could, so that a boundary dispute started which lasted until 1760, long after Penn's death. A line was then agreed upon, and a few years later two English surveyors, Mason and Dixon, drew the boundary between Maryland and Pennsylvania as it still exists. The "Mason and Dixon line" was long famous as the dividing line between the North and the South.



WILLIAM PENN ARRANGING A TREATY WITH THE INDIANS

As imagined by the artist Edwin A. Abbey. Copyright by M. G. Abbey; from a Copley Print, copyright by Curtis and Cameron, Publishers, Boston

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Prepare a two-minute floor talk on the causes leading to the settlement of Pennsylvania.

2. Make a map of the middle colonies in 1700. Show New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Delaware, the Hudson River, the Iroquois Indian country, Philadelphia, the Delaware River, Germantown, and the Susquehanna River.

3. Account for the rapid growth of the Pennsylvania Colony.

4. Read the story "William Penn and the Quakers," in L. B. Evans's *America First*, pp. 63-67; also "The Quakers in Pennsylvania," in W. F. Gordy's *Colonial Days*, pp. 173-183.

3. HOW THE PEOPLE IN THE MIDDLE COLONIES LIVED ABOUT 1700

What People and How Many? By 1700 there were perhaps forty thousand or fifty thousand people in the middle colonies. Most of them lived in two groups: one around the city of New York, the other around Philadelphia. But all the middle colonies were growing fast. Settlers were spreading up the Hudson, and out along the Mohawk valley from Albany. Farmers were pushing toward the west from Philadelphia into the Susquehanna valley.

There was a greater variety of races here than in New England or in the South. In New York and New Jersey there were English and Dutch and Scotch and French. In Pennsylvania and Delaware the English were most common; but a few Swedes had come in, the Scotch-Irish were arriving, and so were the Germans — thousands of them. In fact, there were so many Germans in Pennsylvania that they had their own churches, schools, and newspapers.

Landholding and Classes of People. We remember that in New England each farmer had a little farm of his own, and that in the South the plantations were generally large and

owned by a small number of men. But in the middle colonies a different plan was followed. In New York a few people owned most of the land. Four families had two hundred square miles of the best land on Long Island. Another New York family owned about fifteen hundred square miles. In the other middle colonies the land was owned by the proprietor of the colony. The great families and the proprietors let their land to tenants who paid a small rent each year. So there grew up in these colonies four classes of people :

1. There were the negro slaves, especially in New York.
2. There were the indentured servants such as we found in the South and in New England.
3. Most common were the small farmers and workmen who rented land from the few owners of large tracts.
4. The most powerful class were the great landowners of New York and a few rich merchants in New York City and Philadelphia.

How did the People earn a Living? Most of the people here were farmers. Here the best wheat was grown and the best flour was made. The fur trade was important in New York. In Delaware a few men knew how to work in iron and how to make glass, paper, and cloth. Philadelphia had the best printers.

Most people had to work very hard. There was the land to be cleared of trees and plowed, cabins to be built, crops to be attended to, and enemies to be guarded against, such as the wolf, the bear, and the Indian. The roads were few and very bad. Travel was on horseback. Altogether life was hard and primitive.

Government, Religion, and Education. There was not so much self-government as in New England. In New York nobody could vote unless he held a considerable amount of land. The number of people who owned such an amount was very small, and the government was in their hands. In Pennsyl-

vania and Delaware there was a little more self-government, because William Penn's charter of 1701 was rather liberal. In some places there were town meetings such as were held in New England; in other places the county was most important, as it was in the South.

The middle colonies had a greater variety of churches than were found in New England and the South. In New York the Episcopal Church had many members, but there were also the Dutch Reformed Church, the Presbyterian Church, and others. In Pennsylvania there were Quakers; also Lutherans, Mennonites, and other German groups.

There were but few schools in the middle colonies as early as 1700. Most children were educated at home, if they got any education at all. The first college was the College of New Jersey (now called Princeton University), but this was commenced in 1746, one hundred and ten years after Harvard and fifty-three years after William and Mary.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Read what R. G. Thwaites says about life in the middle colonies in his book *The Colonies*, chap. x.

2. Compare the middle colonies with the New England and the Southern colonies with respect to the following topics:

- a. Population in 1700.
- b. Classes of people.
- c. Ways of earning a living.
- d. Government.
- e. Religion.
- f. Education.

3. Tell the story of the beginnings of the middle colonies. Make an outline for your guidance.

4. Name three outstanding leaders in the early history of the middle colonies. Do the same for New England and the Southern colonies.

UNIT IV. THE GROWTH OF ENGLAND AND FRANCE IN THE NEW WORLD, 1700-1763

Between 1700 and 1763 large numbers of English settlers were reaching America. French settlers were going, also, to Canada, working their way up the St. Lawrence River to the Great Lakes and out to the Mississippi Valley. The English and the French were bitter enemies in Europe. Only time could tell what would happen if the English and the French settlers should chance to wish to own the same pieces of land.

1. HOW THE ENGLISH COLONIES GREW

What happened in New England: By 1763 New England had about four hundred and seventy-five thousand people, which was four or five times as many as in 1700. All these people had to find new land to live on. Most of them settled in the seaport towns; others went inland along the river valleys. Maine had a fringe of settlements along the shore. The valleys of the Merrimack and Connecticut rivers became settled far from the Atlantic, and so did all the small valleys between these two. Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut became dotted with farming towns. A few villages were started even in southern Vermont. It took no little courage to go so far from the large towns, for the danger of Indian raids was constant.¹

¹ Two stories may illustrate the dangers of colonial life on the edge of the Indian country:

The town of Haverhill, Massachusetts, was attacked by Indians on March 15, 1697. Mrs. Hannah Dustin was seized and carried into New Hampshire, and her small child was killed by the savages. One night Mrs. Dustin killed nine of the Indians in the band, scalped them, and escaped with two other white prisoners.

The time of the other story was 1704, and the place Deerfield, Massachusetts. At two o'clock one winter morning two hundred and fifty Frenchmen and Indians suddenly swooped down on the village, killed fifty-three people on the spot, and dragged one hundred and eleven away to Canada. One after another of the prisoners became too weak to keep up with the march toward Canada, and they were promptly killed. One of the number, a girl of seven or eight years named Eunice Williams, grew up in Canada and married an Indian.

For many years after 1763 the Indian was a frequent visitor (generally friendly) at the log cabins of farmers in New Hampshire and Vermont. North of these little settlements lay the trackless forests; indeed, Daniel Webster, who was born in central New Hampshire in 1782, used to say that there was nothing north of his birthplace except the North Star.



A PIONEER SETTLER'S CABIN

A scene which testifies to the early hardships of pioneer women. (From "Daniel Boone," one of The Chronicles of America Photoplays. Copyright. By permission, Yale University Press)

Between 1700 and 1763 self-government was on the increase in New England. Although New Hampshire and Massachusetts at the latter date had governors appointed by the king of England, and although these governors were expected to see that England's interests were looked out for and to veto any law which the legislature passed if it displeased the king or was contrary to any English law, nevertheless most of the

New Settlers in the Middle Colonies. By 1763 there were about four hundred thousand people in the middle colonies, ten times as many as in 1700. Most of the four hundred thousand were born in America, but two streams of immigrants helped to bring about the great increase:

1. There had been some wars in Germany which caused a great deal of suffering. Perhaps two thousand people left various parts of Germany every year to settle in America.¹

2. In northern Ireland were a great many people who had moved there from Scotland. Some of them were skilled in making woolen and linen cloth. Most of them were farmers. They did not get along well with the people of southern Ireland, and hence many of them were glad to move to a new country.

If we could have flown over the middle colonies in an airship in 1763, we could easily have discovered where the new colonists settled. We should have seen a line of villages and farms up the Hudson River and out along the Mohawk valley into the middle of New York State, up the Delaware, the Schuylkill, and the Susquehanna, and all along the shores of the ocean.

More Germans went to Pennsylvania than to any other colony. There they cleared farms in the Susquehanna valley and founded several towns. By 1763 a third of the people of Pennsylvania were Germans, and to this day the eastern part of the state shows the German influence in many ways.

The Scotch-Irish also went into Pennsylvania in large numbers — so large that one man complained that all Ireland was moving to America. Many of them migrated toward

¹ For example, about thirteen thousand Germans landed in London during 1709 without sufficient food and money and without much of an idea about where they wanted to go. Some of them were put in tents supplied by the English, and some were housed in empty buildings. The government and some generous English people furnished clothing and food. Some of the Germans were finally sent back home, but about five hundred migrated to North Carolina. There they took up farms in the river valleys and remained as long as they lived.

the mountains in the middle of the state. There they cleared farms and earned a livelihood with the hoe and the musket. In later years some of the Scotch-Irish migrated southward along the slopes of the Appalachian Mountains into Maryland,



THE MIDDLE COLONIES ABOUT 1750

Virginia, and the Carolinas. They gave excellent protection against the Indians, as they were brave men and knew well how to handle a musket.

The Fast-Growing South. The colonies from Maryland to Georgia (inclusive) had about eight times as great a population in 1763 as they had in 1700. Altogether there were nearly

seven hundred and twenty thousand people in 1763. Virginia was the largest, although even that colony would seem thinly settled to us today. Its three hundred and fifteen thousand settlers—about the numbers in Indianapolis, Kansas City (Missouri), or Seattle in 1920—were scattered over a large

area. South of Virginia population was increasing at a greater rate than in Maryland or Virginia. It is estimated that there were forty times as many people in the Carolinas and Georgia in 1763 as in 1700.

It is important to notice, however, that a large number of these people were *slaves*. In most places in the South two persons in every five whom you met on a farm

or on a highway were negro slaves. Except in Maryland, few of the white indentured servants were now to be found, although they had been common in earlier times.

Fewer immigrants were going to the South. A few French and Germans went to Virginia, and a few French to South Carolina. Otherwise there were no such migrations from Europe as those which settled Pennsylvania so rapidly.



THE SOUTHERN COLONIES ABOUT 1750

Landholding and Self-government in the South. The great peculiarity about the South was the size of the farms, or plantations. It was the custom at that time for the owner of a plantation, at his death, to give all his land to his oldest son. None was given to the other children. The oldest son kept the plantation. Perhaps he added to it. One in Virginia was two hundred and eighty square miles in extent. Many were five square miles in size. So it came about that farmers who went to Virginia could not purchase land near the ocean or on the big rivers. They were forced to go to the western part of the colony, near the mountains (or the "uplands," as that region was called). When the Germans and Scotch-Irish from Pennsylvania moved southward in search of good land, it was along the upland country that they traveled. Many descendants of these people are to be found there to this very day.

During most of the time from 1700 to 1763 the Southern colonies had governors appointed by the king. In some of the colonies (in Virginia, for example) there was a special fund of money which was used to pay the governor's salary. This fact made him a little more independent of the colonial legislature. Nevertheless the legislatures refused to raise money for other purposes unless the governor let them pass laws as they pleased. Hence the Southern colonies, like those of New England, became thoroughly accustomed to managing their own affairs. In doing so they had well-trained leaders, for many of the rich plantation owners sent their sons to the best universities and law schools in England.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Give a three-minute floor talk on the dangers of colonial life on the edge of the Indian country. Read "Bloody March," "The Saving of Hadley," and "Hannah Dustin," all in L. B. Evans's *America First*, pp. 72, 76, and 87. These stories will give you something to talk about.

2. Describe to the class the migration of the Irish and the Scotch-Irish.

3. Determine how many acres there are in a plantation two hundred and eighty square miles in extent.

4. Account for the rapid growth of the Southern colonies between 1700 and 1763.

5. Read *The Colonies*, by Reuben G. Thwaites, chap. xiv. It tells what happened in the English colonies from 1700 to 1750.

2. HOW FRANCE GREW IN THE NEW WORLD, 1700-1763

The Appalachian Mountains and who was settling beyond them. As the new settlers in the English colonies went farther and farther from the seashore in search of good land, they met a great obstacle in the form of the Appalachian Mountains. From northern Georgia this range runs northeast until it ends in the White Mountains, in New Hampshire.

In those days, when there were no railways at all and almost no roads, a mountain range was a greater difficulty for a traveler than it is now. It would be impossible for a farmer who lived beyond the mountains to get his crops up over the hills to market in the towns and villages near the coast. That is why the colonists spread up the rivers, which could be used as highways, and then away from the rivers over the best land which could be found on the eastern side of the Appalachians. Only a few colonists were so venturesome as to go over the ridge to the other side.

Although the English were not taking up the land beyond the mountains, somebody else was. Hence it became necessary for the colonists to find out what was going on over there.

We remember that the claim of France to a part of the New World rested on the explorations of Cartier, Champlain, Marquette, Joliet, and La Salle (see pages 33-36). We remember how these men went up the St. Lawrence River, along

the Great Lakes, and down the great stream which the red men called "the Father of Waters," and which we know as the Mississippi.

While the English were founding Jamestown and Plymouth, the French were paying less attention to colonies and more to exploration and trading. To be sure, Quebec and Montreal were started on the St. Lawrence River, but there were scarcely more settled colonists in all the French part of the New World in 1700 than there were English around such cities as Boston or New York or Philadelphia.

French Control beyond the Mountains. The French, however, had a definite plan for controlling the Great Lakes and the valley of the Mississippi.

On the shores of Lake Ontario, at the point where the lake empties into the St. Lawrence, was built Fort Frontenac (its position can be seen on Progressive Map II). Another fort was built at Niagara, another at Detroit, and another at Vincennes, in Indiana. There was one at Kaskaskia, in Illinois, and one at New Orleans. Finally, in 1754, one was constructed at the junction of the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers. It was called Fort Duquesne and stood where Pittsburgh now is. At each fort there was a small garrison of soldiers, a missionary, and generally a few fur-traders. Besides the forts, a number of mission stations were established by missionaries who wished to spread Christianity among the Indians. There were also many Frenchmen who belonged to no fort at all, but who roamed about among the Indians, trading furs and seeking adventure.

Hence, although the French had only a few colonists in America, they had made friends with the Indians and had a firm grip on the whole country beyond the Appalachian Mountains. Would the French go eastward and capture the English colonies? Or would the English climb the mountains and try to drive away the French?

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Make a careful study of the map following page 51. Note the territory settled by the English before 1700 and that settled between 1700 and 1760. Find the Philadelphia Wagon Road. Study this map until you are able to give a four-minute floor talk on the progress of English settlement to 1760.

2. Contrast French and English colonization in North America with respect to location, population, government, motives, manner of settling, and industries.

3. Explain why the English colonists were much more independent of the mother country than the French colonists were.

4. Read John A. Long's *Early Settlements in America*, chaps. xiii, xiv. You will find here an excellent treatment of the settlements and explorations made by the French.

5. Find twenty names on a present-day map of the United States that have come down from the French period.

3. SHALL ENGLAND OR FRANCE CONTROL NORTH AMERICA?

French and English Rivalry in Europe. France and England were as much rivals in Europe as they were in the New World. For at least three hundred years they had been the most bitter enemies. Whenever they were at war in Europe (as they frequently were), the colonists in America sent soldiers against each other. From 1689 to 1697 they fought King William's War, so called in America because the ruler in England was King William. Between 1702 and 1713 they fought Queen Anne's War.¹ At the end of this war England took from France the region now known as Nova Scotia. They were at it again, these bitter rivals, in 1744. This was called King George's War,² and it lasted until 1748. During the struggle New England contributed four thousand men to help a British fleet capture Louisburg, a great fort on Cape Breton Island.

¹ Queen Anne, for whom the second of these wars was named, was ruler from 1702 to 1714.

² King George II reigned from 1727 to 1760.

At the Forks of the Ohio. The smoke of this last contest had hardly cleared away when the French began building forts near the "forks of the Ohio," as they called the junction of the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers. Some Virginia colonists had their eyes on the same spot and had formed a company to send out settlers to colonize it. Then Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia heard that the French were already there. He decided to send a letter warning them to get out of the Ohio valley. As his messenger he picked a twenty-one-year-old Virginia surveyor named George Washington. Washington's journey to the forks of the Ohio can now be taken in a few hours in a comfortable railway train, but in November and December, 1753, it took weeks of hard and dangerous traveling.

The French were not to be frightened by a young man with a letter from the governor of Virginia; they went on building their fort, which they named Fort Duquesne. Thereupon Governor Dinwiddie sent Washington again, this time with some soldiers. At first Washington was able to defeat the French, but later he was beaten and forced to go back.¹

Braddock's Defeat, 1755. This did not end the quarrel, however. In 1755 General Braddock was sent over from England with two regiments of troops. With Washington and some Virginia soldiers Braddock made his way over the mountains and through the thick forests toward that same Fort Duquesne, at the forks of the Ohio. He was met by some French and Indians near the fort. The Indians, accustomed to fighting in the woods, hid behind the trees and poured a deadly fire on Braddock's men. The English soldiers, not used to

¹ It gives some idea of the difficulties met by young Washington to notice that *part* of his task was to cut a road, fifty miles in length, for his troops to march over. Of course the road was a crude affair compared with modern highways, but the number of men that Washington had was small — only about three hundred. He did not have modern machinery for building his road; but undoubtedly his men were as skillful with the ax as anybody today, and they could clear a way through the trees in short order.

this sort of warfare, stood their ground as long as they could ; then they broke and ran. Braddock was killed, and nearly nine hundred of his twelve hundred men were either dead or wounded. It fell to Washington to collect the few men who had escaped unharmed and lead them out of danger. Braddock's successor then took command and ordered the troops back to the coast.

The French and Indian War, 1756-1763. The battle near Fort Duquesne started the French and English to fighting again. In America the quarrel was known as the French and Indian War ; in Europe several other nations took part in it, and the conflict was called the Seven Years' War. France and England fought each other all over the world : in the West Indies, where both had colonies ; in India, which both wished to have ; in Europe, wherever either side could find soldiers belonging to the other ; and on the sea, whenever an English warship met a French vessel. It was well understood that each nation would take away from the other all the land and all the colonies and all the trade that it could.

The strongest French fort in America was Quebec, situated on the top of a high, steep bluff on the St. Lawrence River. The city was surrounded by a wall with one hundred and six cannon mounted on it, and for several miles on each side there were earthworks behind which were nearly sixteen thousand French, Canadians, and Indians under General Louis de Montcalm. From the top of the cliff Montcalm could look for miles up and down the St. Lawrence as if he were in a balloon.

General James Wolfe was sent by the king of England with nine thousand soldiers and a huge fleet of ships to see if he could capture Quebec. Late in June, 1759, he sailed up the river and landed within sight of the city. There he stayed, week after week, trying to find a way to defeat his enemy. The French tried to burn the English ships, but failed. The

English fired shot which set fire to Quebec and burned up most of it, but that did not beat the French. Then the French sent out soldiers to murder English people wherever they could be found and to burn their houses, and the English burned French houses and even whole villages; but this had no effect. It looked as if neither side could defeat the other.



BRITISH SOLDIERS ABOUT TO SCALE THE HEIGHTS OF QUEBEC

From "Wolfe and Montcalm," one of The Chronicles of America Photoplays.
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At last, one day, Wolfe spied a steep path running up the cliff near Quebec. At the top was a small cluster of tents, where soldiers stayed who guarded the path. The siege had lasted so long that the guard had become careless, and Wolfe determined to try to send some soldiers up the slope on the night of September 12. His men were delighted. They sang,

"And ye that love fighting shall soon have enough;
Wolfe commands us, my boys; we shall give them Hot Stuff."

The night was dark, and a rain was coming, when Wolfe's men slipped by the guards on the path, climbed to the top, and scattered the men in the tents. When Montcalm came in response to the alarm, about four thousand British soldiers were waiting in a level field called the Plains of Abraham.

In the morning the French attacked with about the same number of soldiers that Wolfe had. The British waited, then fired two volleys, and charged. The French broke and ran. Montcalm was fatally wounded, and so was Wolfe, for three bullets had struck him. While Wolfe and Montcalm¹ were dying, the British went forward and captured Quebec, which they have owned ever since. "In truth," says a writer, "the funeral of Montcalm was the funeral of New France."

The victory of England in New France was only one of many. She was victorious in other parts of the world as well — in India, in Europe, and on the sea. In 1763 peace was declared, and France had to give up her colonies in North America.²

The French and Indian War had important results for the American colonies :

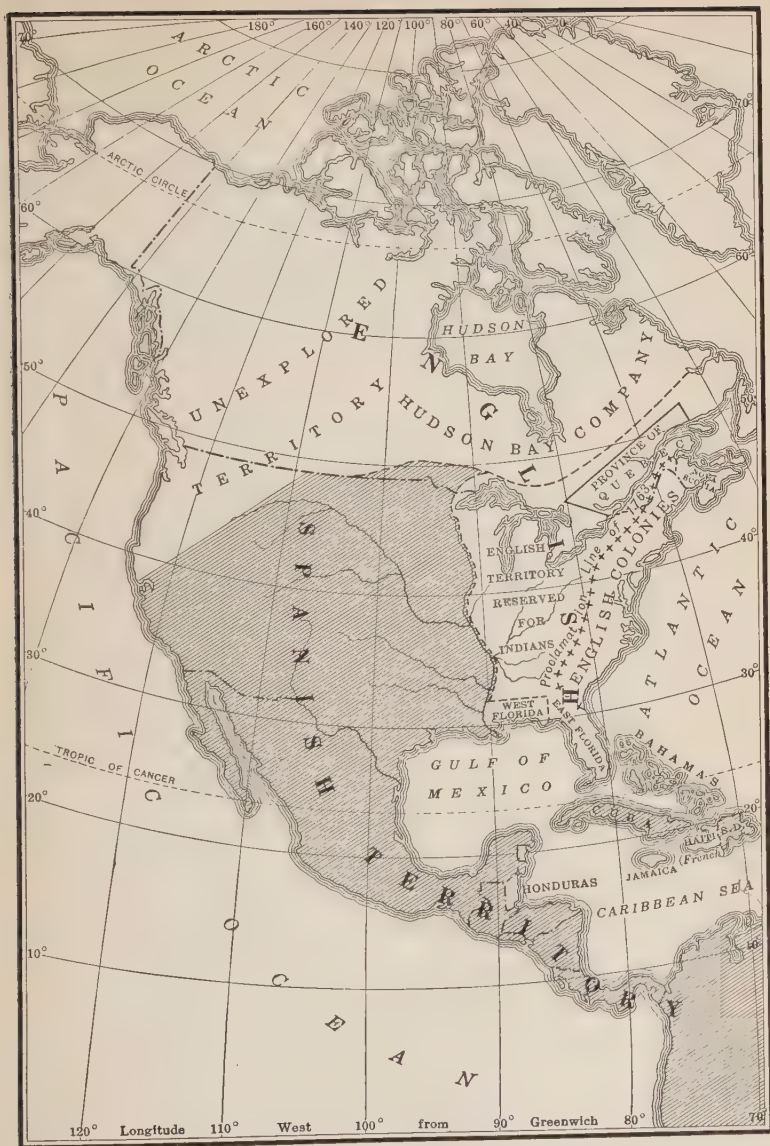
1. It decided that the great country from the Appalachians west to the Mississippi should belong to England, not France.

¹ Wolfe and Montcalm were two interesting characters. Perhaps nobody ever looked less like a soldier than James Wolfe, with his retreating forehead and chin, his narrow shoulders, and his long, thin arms and legs. Moreover, he was so sickly most of the time that only his courage kept him on his feet. He had been in the army since the age of fifteen and was thirty-three at the time of the battle.

Louis de Montcalm, like Wolfe, had been a soldier since the age of fifteen. He was about fifteen years older than Wolfe and had led armies in most parts of Europe. When he was sent by the king of France to take command of the armies in North America, he left behind at home a family of six children.

Both generals were fatally wounded on the same day — September 13, 1759. When Wolfe found that his wounds were so great that he could not live, he gave directions to head off the French retreat so that they could not escape. Then he said, "Now, God be praised, I shall die in peace!" In the meantime Montcalm was inquiring of his followers how the battle went. When he heard that the French were beaten, he said, "I am happy that I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec."

² So great were the losses of France all over the world that her power as a trading and colony-holding nation was almost gone. Never after 1763 was she a great force on the North American continent.



BRITISH NORTH AMERICA IN 1763

2. It gave Florida to England.

3. It gave some military training to the colonial troops who took part in the war, and it trained a few leaders, especially George Washington.

4. It left many of the colonies in debt, for they had supplied soldiers and had paid and partly equipped them.

5. Now that the French were driven out of North America, the English colonists did not need British troops to protect them against their Canadian neighbors. The dangers of Indian raids remained, of course, but the danger of French *and* Indian massacres was gone.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Upon what did the English base their claim to North America? Upon what did the French base theirs? Which had the better claim?

2. If you had been an Algonquin Indian living west of the Allegheny Mountains in 1754, which side would you have favored in the French and Indian War? If you had been an Iroquois Indian? Give your reasons in each case.

3. Why was the possession of the Ohio valley so important to the French? to the English?

4. Give a three-minute floor talk on the conditions in America that led to the conflict between the French and the English.

5. Show why the fall of Quebec is called one of the decisive battles of the world.

6. Make a list of persons and places mentioned in connection with the fight between England and France for control in North America. Locate the places and tell for what the persons are noted.

7. Prepare a story of the struggle between England and France for supremacy in North America, using the following sentence outline:

a. From 1700 to 1763 the English colonies in America increased rapidly owing to (1) a large native-born population and (2) immigration, especially German and Scotch-Irish.

b. The growth of the English colonies toward the west was halted by the Appalachian Mountains.

c. The French were extending their power from Canada down into the Mississippi Valley and were building forts at many places.

d. The French and English had long been rivals in Europe and America.

e. They fought for the New World in the French and Indian War, 1756–1763. France lost.

8. Find in your geography the two small islands off the northeast coast of North America which France was allowed to keep and still holds. Has France any other territory in the New World today?

BEFORE LEAVING DIVISION TWO

I. Debate one or more of the following subjects :

1. *Resolved*, That the first settlers in Virginia had greater difficulties to overcome than the first settlers of Plymouth.
2. *Resolved*, That South Carolina was better adapted to permanent settlement by whites than North Carolina was.
3. *Resolved*, That the English had more right to the Ohio valley than the French had.
4. *Resolved*, That Roger Williams deserves a more important place in the history of our country than Captain John Smith.
5. *Resolved*, That Virginia was a more desirable place in which to live in 1700 than Massachusetts.

II. Prepare the following for your notebook :

1. A chart containing the following facts about each of the thirteen colonies : name, time of settlement, place of settlement, by whom settled, purpose, one or two conspicuous leaders.
2. A statement of approximately two hundred words in length about each of the following : Roger Williams, William Penn, John Smith, Anne Hutchinson, William Bradford, Thomas Hooker, Miles Standish.
3. A brief statement of why these dates are important : 1607, 1619, 1620, 1630, and 1643.
4. A *Hall of Fame* for this division. A majority vote of the class should be required in order to place a name in the *Hall*. Be ready to defend the names you propose.

5. A map, as follows :

- a. Title: The Thirteen English Colonies and the French Domain in North America in 1750.
- b. Use an outline map of the United States east of the Mississippi River.
- c. Show and name the physical features mentioned in this division. Do the same with the cities, towns, and forts.
- d. Show the boundary of each of the thirteen colonies; also the territory claimed by France and Spain.

III. Be able to do the following things :

1. Tell a brief, straightforward story of Division Two.
2. Identify, in a sentence or two, Wolfe, Montcalm, Braddock, King Philip, John Winthrop, James Oglethorpe, Blackbeard, Thomas Dale, James I, Charles I, John Carver, Lord Baltimore, Edmund Andros, Robert Dinwiddie, Governor Stuyvesant, Henry Hudson, Governor Berkeley.
3. Explain the importance of the following :
 - (1) 1607, settlement of Jamestown ; (2) 1608, Quebec settled by the French ; (3) 1619, slavery introduced into Virginia ; (4) 1620, the settlement of Plymouth ; (5) 1630, the settlement of Boston ; (6) 1643, the New England Confederation.
4. Make a map showing the English colonies and the French claims in 1750. This is to be done without assistance from books or maps. Show the claims of England, Spain, and France. Name the chief physical features. Locate the important cities. Use an outline map of the United States east of the Mississippi River for this test.

IV. A "round-table" on books and stories is a class exercise in which each member of the group advertises in a few words a book or story he has recently read. Conduct a round-table on the books and stories the class has read from the Story-Book Library for Division Two or on similar ones from the home library or the public library. In advertising the book you have read, aim to make the members of the class want to read it.

DIVISION THREE
COLONIAL LIFE ABOUT 1763

FOREWORD

Long ago — in 1763 — boys and girls went coasting and skating or threw snowballs in winter ; they played marbles and ball in the spring ; and they played hopscotch and hide and seek and flew kites, and had many other amusements which are the same as ours.

Nevertheless, most people had to work much harder than they do now. Everybody knew what that wise man Benjamin Franklin had said : "He that riseth late, must trot all day, and shall scarce overtake his business at night," and

Early to bed, and early to rise,
Makes a man healthy, wealthy and wise.

The following pages tell about work and play in colonial times, about houses and furniture, about clothing and food and churches, and how people traveled. It may be interesting, as you read about these things, to wonder how much of colonial life was *like* ours and how much was *different*. How many surprising things could *we* tell our *ancestors* about, such as electric lights and airplanes and automobiles? And how many new things could *they* tell *us* about, like the things in the following pages?

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A TWELVE-BOOK LIBRARY

Some of the books listed below are to be read as you read a story; others are to be used for reference now and then in connection with your study of Division Three. Numbers 5, 7, 8, 11, and 12 are books you will want to read straight through. You will use the others in the list to secure additional information on the topics treated in the text. How many of these books are in your school or public library?

1. *Social Life in Old New England*, by Mary C. Crawford. Little, Brown & Company.

An excellent account of the intimate everyday life of those who built up New England. Contains material on going to college, choosing a profession, getting married, reading books, and amusements. Many fine pictures.

2. *Home Life in Colonial Days*, by Alice Morse Earle. The Macmillan Company.

Probably the best one-volume treatment of all phases of everyday life in the colonies. More than one hundred excellent illustrations. You will want to make constant use of this book while studying colonial life.

3. *Life in the Eighteenth Century*, by G. C. Eggleston. Volume II of *Our Colonial Story*. Laidlaw Brothers.

An excellent treatment of many phases of colonial life. It is exactly what the title suggests. Contains many excellent pictures.

4. *The Colonial Cavalier, or Southern Life before the Revolution*, by Maud Wilder Goodwin. Little, Brown & Company.

Excellent chapters on the Cavalier's home, dress, amusements, servants, and church.

5. *George Washington: Farmer*, by Paul L. Haworth. The Bobbs-Merrill Company.

Not a biography, but an admirable account of life on a big plantation. You will be well acquainted with Washington and plantation life after reading this book.

6. *Woman's Life in Colonial Days*, by Carl Halliday. The Cornhill Publishing Company.

Aims to portray the work, joys, and sorrows of the colonial woman.

7. *Work and Play in Colonial Days*, by Mary H. MacElroy. The Macmillan Company.

Contains chapters on children's games, Puritan playthings, Sunday clothes, schools, textbooks, handwork, Puritan discipline, and kindred topics. A few good illustrations. You will want to read the whole book.

8. *A Day in a Colonial Home*, by Della R. Prescott. Marshall Jones Company.

A story which will make colonial home life very real to you. A good place to secure pictures for your notebook. If the class should wish to construct a colonial kitchen, directions for such an undertaking are found on pages 49, 50, and 51.

9. *Social New York under the Georges (1714-1778)*, by Esther Singleton. D. Appleton and Company.

Contains material on table furnishings, houses, furniture, clothing, amusements, manners, food, and culture. An abundance of excellent pictures.

10. *Everyday Life in the Colonies*, by Gertrude L. Stone and M. Grace Fickett. D. C. Heath & Co.

An interesting account of what boys and girls of former days thought and did. Covers life at various times from 1620 to 1733. Good chapters on schools, Indian warfare, soap-making, candle-making, telling time, and similar everyday affairs. Contains a few good pictures.

11. *Letters from Colonial Children*, by Eva March Tappan. Houghton Mifflin Company.

These letters give a good idea of how life in the colonies might have seemed to children. Good history and delightful literature. You will like the pictures.

12. *Little Pioneers*, by Maude Ranford Warren. Rand, McNally & Company.

Twenty-one good chapters about the early pioneers in New England. An excellent treatment of all phases of the life they lived and the hardships they endured.

DIVISION THREE

COLONIAL LIFE ABOUT 1763

UNIT I. EVERYDAY LIFE AND SURROUNDINGS

By 1763 there were one and a half million people in the English colonies of America. They lived on the farms and in the towns and villages from Maine to Georgia. Most of them lived near the Atlantic shore, but the river valleys and the upland country as far as the mountains were being settled. What kinds of houses did these ancestors of ours live in? What did they wear? What did they eat? What games did they play? What work did they do? How did they travel, worship, and vote? What kind of education did they get? In short, how did they live?

1. WHAT KINDS OF HOUSES AND FURNITURE DID THE COLONISTS HAVE?

Country Houses in Colonial Times. When the first settlers came, and when later colonists were settling new lands, of course they had to live in the roughest sort of shelter. Some of the earliest settlers in Pennsylvania took refuge under the foliage of large trees. In some parts of New England, New Netherland, and Pennsylvania they dug caves in the sides of steep banks. Most of the first houses on Manhattan Island, where New York now stands, were built of bark peeled from the trees. Some of these were "three-faced camps"; that is, they were closed in on only three sides. On the fourth side they were open. The opening served as door and window,

and the fire was built at this point. Abraham Lincoln lived in such a home as late as 1816.¹

A common American home during colonial times was the *log cabin*. It has by no means disappeared even to this day. At first it was built of round logs notched at the ends to hold them together. There was no floor, no loft or attic, and nothing to prevent the wind from whistling through the



THE PARSON CAPEN HOUSE, TOPSFIELD, MASSACHUSETTS. BUILT 1683

Copyright, by Topsfield Historical Society

cracks. Sometimes the settler split some small logs, smoothed them with his ax, and made thick, rough boards called punch-ions. With these he made a crude floor. Sometimes he stuffed the chinks at the sides with clay, or even covered the outside with rough shingles called clapboards. He fastened the shingles with wooden pegs, because nails were scarce. If he prospered and lived for some time in the same place, he built a loft in his cabin. This was a sort of large shelf up under

¹ Such shelters are still used by campers and hunters in many parts of the country.

the roof and was reached by a homemade ladder. There the children slept, often on the floor.

Here and there a few cabins were more elaborate. When Oglethorpe founded his colony at Savannah, Georgia, he had all the cabins built alike, twenty-four feet long and sixteen feet wide. The sides were covered with clapboards, the roofs were shingled, and the floors were made of wide planks. Penn planned cabins of two rooms for his colonists. The outside walls were clapboarded, and the chinks were filled with mud. Paint was scarcely ever seen in any of the colonies except in the towns, but sometimes oyster shells were broken up and used as a sort of mortar or plaster.

Only the great estates in New York and the plantations of Maryland and Virginia could boast of mansions similar to those in England at that time. Many in the South were built of brick and are still splendid examples of architecture.

Town Houses in Colonial Times. Houses in the cities and towns were often larger and more elaborate than houses in the country and were built of a greater variety of materials. In Boston, for example, many of the houses were two or three stories tall, and a third of them were built entirely of brick. Some in New York were even four or five stories in height, and stone, brick, and tiles were used. Philadelphia houses were built of brick and generally had three floors. Southern towns were few in number, and wood was the most common building material, although brick was much used in South Carolina.

Household Furnishings. The furnishings of colonial houses were as varied as the houses themselves. In the usual one-room log cabin, of course, the furnishings were as simple as could be. Beds, tables, and stools, if there were any at all, were homemade of wood from the neighboring forest. In many cabins there was no bed whatever: skins of deer, buffalo, or bear were spread on the ground or the floor to sleep on.

Skins of all sorts served as bedding. Mattresses and pillows were stuffed with feathers or with the down of the cat-tail or the cotton from the milkweed. Equally simple were the few rude cooking-utensils which the colonist family could have in its rough cabin.

More beautiful and costly things were to be found in the towns and in those parts of the colonies that had been longest



THE HOUSE OF THE ADAMS FAMILY AT QUINCY, MASSACHUSETTS

settled. Chairs, beds, and bureaus were made by skilled workmen out of maple, birch, oak, and even mahogany. The usual New England home contained a considerable amount of well-made furniture, together with a spinning-wheel, a loom, candlesticks, and dishes made of wood, of earthenware, or of pewter. These are the highly prized "antiques" of today. Frequently, also, there was an assortment of tools, for the farmer had to do much of his own carpentering, blacksmithing, and shoemaking.

The houses of wealthy Northern merchants and Southern planters were sometimes beautifully furnished with goods ordered in England. George Washington, for example, frequently sent for costly things — once for two mahogany tables and six mahogany chairs, and at another time for a hundred yards of blankets, twenty pounds of thread, two hundred pounds of steel, six axes, and a cap, a handkerchief,



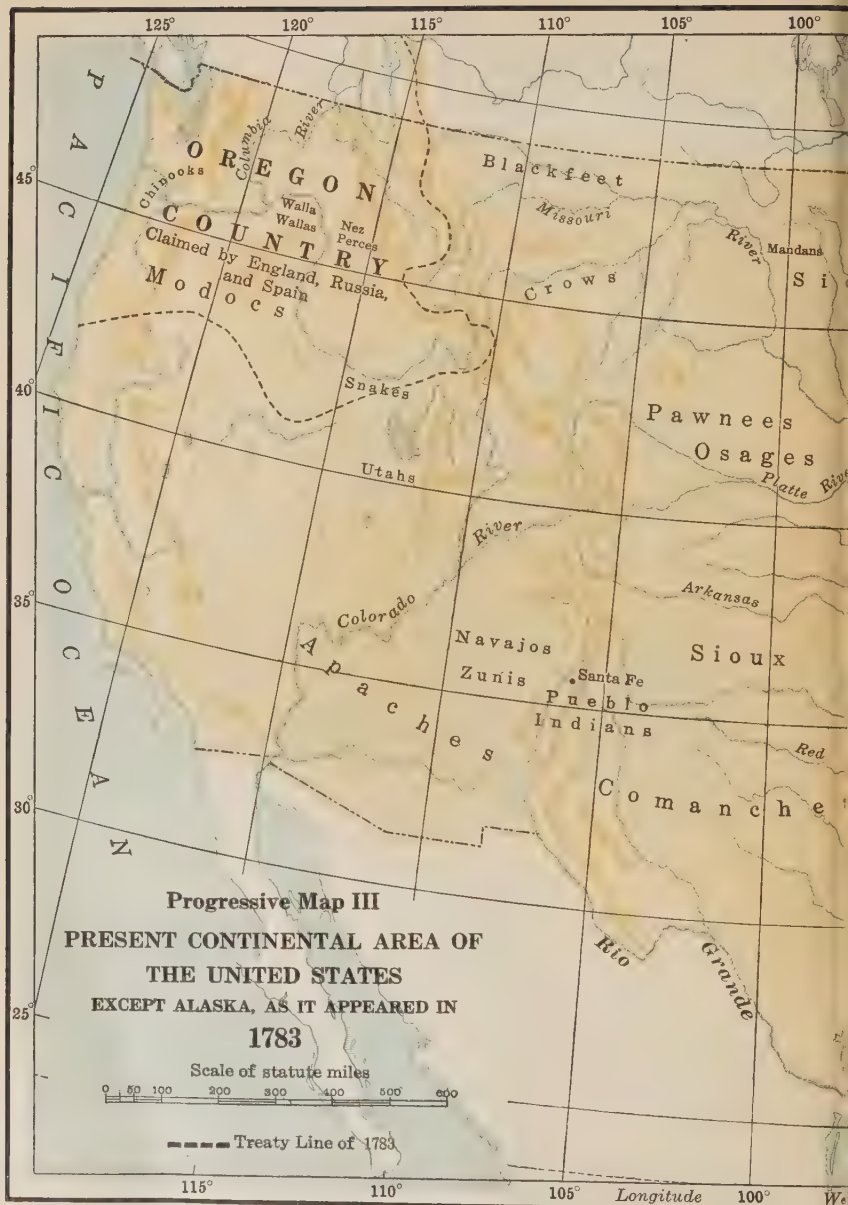
AN INTERIOR SHOWING COLONIAL FURNITURE

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“ruffles,” and a “tucker” (the cap, handkerchief, ruffles, and tucker to cost \$100!), with a great many other objects too numerous to mention.¹ Quantities of silver, china, and glass-

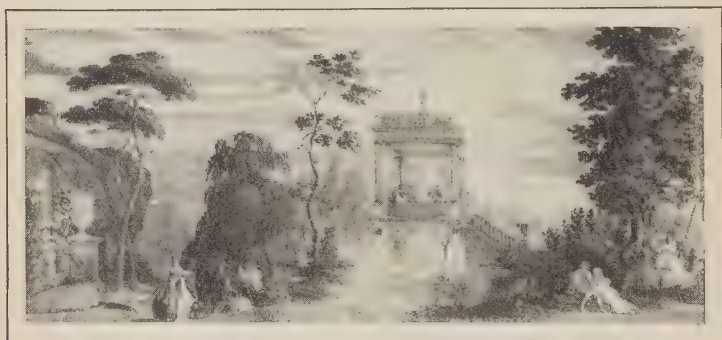
¹ When George Washington was ordering all these costly luxuries for his house, he ordered also a great many things for his stepchildren. For the little boy, who was six years old, there were six pairs of gloves and \$2.50 worth of toys; and for the little girl, who was only four, there were twelve pairs of gloves, ten pairs of shoes, and two fans!

Of course, the living conditions for most people were much less luxurious. The men who settled most of the colonial farms worked hard in the fields, and their clothing and food were coarse and not too plentiful. Their beds consisted principally of straw, and it was no uncommon thing for them to sleep on the floor in front of the fire.





ware were sent over from England for colonists who were able to buy them. A tall clock — the kind that we sometimes today call a grandfather's clock — was frequently seen in a corner of the front hall. The bedrooms contained mahogany bedsteads, with canopies which looked as if they would collect a great deal of dust and be very hot in summer. The spare blankets and the best clothes were stored in tall chests of drawers, often made of beautiful mahogany and trimmed with attractive brass handles, or "pulls." Wall paper, which



A SPECIMEN OF COLONIAL WALL PAPER

is so familiar to us today, was extremely rare during colonial times. Until 1765 there was no wall-paper factory in America, so that every yard of paper had to be ordered in Europe. Some specimens of it still exist. Generally the designs represented cities, streets, rivers, and trees.

These things, however, were usually found only in the houses of the wealthy. Benjamin Franklin was afraid that his wife was getting extravagant when she bought a china bowl and a silver spoon, although he had made a considerable success in his business. He had always been accustomed to a cheap earthenware dish and a pewter spoon.

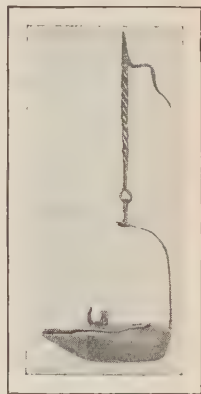
Heat and Light in the Colonial Home. Heat for the home was supplied by fireplaces, the one in the kitchen serving as a

cookstove. In New England, especially, the fireplaces were huge — wide enough to take a long log and tall enough for a man to walk into. On cold nights the swarms of sparks flew up the chimney, and the children could look up the wide opening and see the stars. Cheerful as the fireplace was, however, it did not make the house comfortable. The small boy standing before the fire found his face burning hot and his back as cold as the out-of-doors. In fact, Cotton Mather, who lived in Massachusetts, wrote this in his diary on January 23, 1697: "So extremely cold was the weather, that in a warm Room, on a great Fire, the Juices forced out at the End of short Billets of Wood, by the Heat of the Flame, on which they were laid, yet froze into Ice, at their coming out." Generally no attempt was made to heat the bedrooms,¹ and getting out of bed on an icy winter morning was like jumping into cold water.

In 1742 Benjamin Franklin, in Philadelphia, invented a sort of metal stove which sent more heat into the room and less up the chimney. Not many people had this improvement, however.

Since there were no matches in 1763 the most primitive way of starting a fire had to be used. A piece of very hard stone called flint was struck against a bit of steel. This produced a spark, which was caught in tinder or in soft, dry cloth. It was difficult to do, especially on a damp day. For that reason the fire in the fireplace was kept going all the time, both in summer and in winter. If it went out, the children were sent to the neighbors to borrow some fire.

¹ Sometimes at night the beds were warmed with "warming-pans." These were shaped like covered dishes on a long handle resembling the handle of a broom. In the pan were placed some hot coals from the fireplace; then the pan was pushed up and down between the blankets until the bed was warm.



A COLONIAL LAMP

Aside from the fireplace, the candle was the chief source of light. It was made of tallow or of any other kind of grease or fat. There was a lamp also, called the Betty lamp, a small, shallow basin with a projecting nose, or spout. The basin was filled with tallow or whale oil. A piece of rag was put into the spout so that it extended out over the edge. When lighted, it gave only a dim flicker. Because of the poor lights and because the people were always tired from a hard day's work, everybody went to bed early and got up at daybreak.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. While studying Division Three, search magazines and newspapers for pictures relating to all phases of colonial life. Place the best ones that you find in your permanent notebook.

2. Make three lists of household furnishings: in one list, place the things found in colonial homes which are not found in present-day homes; in another, things found both in colonial and in present-day homes; in still another, things found in present-day homes which were not found in colonial homes.

3. Give a three-minute floor talk on the topic "Ways and Means of heating Dwelling-houses in 1763 and Now."

4. Make a Betty lamp. Light it and do some reading, using the lamp as the only means of illumination.

5. You will find good descriptions and some excellent pictures of the houses and furniture of the colonists in numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 9 in the Twelve-Book Library on pages 106-107. Read some of these.

2. WHAT DID THE COLONISTS EAT AND WEAR?

What did the Colonists Wear? Clothing was simple and rough in colonial times. Servants and slaves were lucky if they could get some of their master's cast-off garments. The frontiersman made the best of hides and skins of animals. The most common clothes were "homespun," made of wool or flax by the mother and daughters of the family. The

greater their skill and industry, the better were the clothes which the children had to wear. Sometimes a touch of color and beauty was added by staining the rough homemade cloth with the juice of the butternut, or with something else that grew on the farm. Most people expected to wear the same clothes year after year until they were completely worn out.



A COLONIAL LOOM

Wealthier people were able to procure costly clothing from across the seas. Not many could have such finery as William Beverley of Virginia ordered from England. For himself he had brought over some round-toed pumps, kid gloves, a beaver hat, a great riding-coat, silk stockings, riding-breeches, and a suit of fine broadcloth; for his wife he ordered silk shoes, pear-colored silk stockings, kid gloves, straw hats, and a whalebone coat.¹

¹ On March 6, 1704, Samuel Sewall, of Massachusetts, was ordering some silk from England to make his wife a dress and petticoat. He ordered twenty-six yards!

What did the Colonists Eat? By 1763 there were no "starving times" in the American colonies, for food was more plentiful than in England.

Near the shore of the sea anybody could get plenty of fish, clams, and oysters. In the forests wild animals, such as deer, were abundant, and such birds as pigeons and turkeys could be found. The thrifty housekeeper gathered all the meat that she could get — beef, mutton, ham, and the like. This she salted, pickled, or smoked, so as to preserve it, and then stored it for winter use.

Most of the fruits and vegetables with which we are familiar were known to the colonists; a few, like the tomato, have come into use later. Most of them, however, were neither as large nor as well grown as they are today. The potato was a South American vegetable which had been brought to Europe, and from Europe to New England and Virginia. Only the wealthy could have an abundance of spices and rare fruits, which grew abroad; most people had to be contented with plenty of meat, game, cornmeal, rye or wheat bread, and, for sweetening, molasses, honey, or maple sirup.

Tea and coffee were constantly imported from abroad. New England was famous for its cider and rum. Beer was made in New York and Pennsylvania, and many kinds of brandy were produced in the South. Honey and water were sometimes mixed; so were molasses, water, and ginger, or water and juice from the sugar cane. The frontiersman who lived on the slopes of the Appalachians distilled whisky from his corn and rye, but it was a strong drink and ruinous to the stomach.

How the Food was Cooked and Eaten. Lacking a convenient cookstove and plenty of dishes, the colonial housekeeper had to think of primitive ways of cooking the family meal. Meats and fish she broiled on the coals in the fireplace. Corn and potatoes were baked by burying them in the hot ashes. Cakes

and biscuits were baked on a hot stone. Iron rods were swung out over the fire, and on them were hung great iron pots and kettles in which meat and vegetables could be cooked.

The table might be a rough board or it might be a beautiful piece of mahogany furniture, according to the circumstances of the family. If the people had the usual comforts, the porridge or meat or vegetables were served in wooden bowls, or "trenchers." Two or even more people might eat from the same dish, just as they drank from the same mug. In a list of rules for the behavior of children at table, written about this time, the small members of the family were told never to ask for anything, never to speak unless spoken to, and never to throw bones under the table.¹

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Now is the time to read *A Day in a Colonial Home*, by Della R. Prescott (see page 107), if you can secure a copy.

2. Make a list of the foods we now enjoy which were unknown in 1763.

3. List the kitchen equipment common today that was unknown to the colonists.

3. HOW DID THE COLONISTS AMUSE THEMSELVES?

The Most Common Amusements. Amusements were none too common among our colonial ancestors. There was so much hard work to be done that when it was finished most people were ready to eat their supper and go to bed. Colonial life was not all work, nevertheless.

Most men and boys enjoyed hunting and fishing. Long after he became a busy and famous man George Washington

¹ The hours for meals were not very different from those of today. Breakfast varied from 6 to 8 o'clock in summer and an hour later in winter, dinner was from 12 to 2, and supper was from 5 to 8. Sometimes fashionable people did not have dinner until 3 or 4 o'clock in the afternoon, but this was rare. Most people had to work hard with their hands, and they needed a hearty meal at midday.

frequently enjoyed a fox hunt.¹ Deer, bears, and wolves were hunted everywhere. Pigeons flew about in flocks of a size which we never see today. In New England the falls of the rivers were favorite spots for catching shad and salmon. In the South it would be a rare plantation that did not have its supply of fishing-tackle ready for use on Saturdays and holidays.



A COMMON COLONIAL AFTERNOON PARTY — A "QUILLING PARTY"

Drawn by a modern artist

Every plantation owner in the South was a lover of good horses and an expert rider. Horse races were common, and there were famous race courses near New York, Philadelphia, Annapolis, Williamsburg, and Charleston. When a race was held, everybody who could do so went to see it. In the North, winter sports such as skating were common, and some of the Indians became swift and daring on the ice.

¹ The following are entries in George Washington's diary for 1768:

- "Feb. 3. Fox hunting. Started but catchd nothg.
- Feb. 6. Fox hunting. Started but catchd nothing.
- Feb. 9. Started a fox, run him four hours, and then lost him.
- Feb. 12. Fox hunting. Catchd two foxes.
- Feb. 13. Catchd 2 more foxes."

On "training day" the men were expected to gather in the towns and get practice in marching and in the use of fire-arms. These days were sure to be used, also, for contests in running, jumping, wrestling, fighting, and pitching quoits. Fairs were common, especially in the middle and Southern colonies, and sports similar to those of training day were the rule.

Indoor amusements were much less common. Some played cards, a few had billiard tables, and now and then an entertainer came along who could give a Punch and Judy show, display trick horses or dogs, walk on a tight rope, or give a theatrical performance. Holidays were then, as now, days of relief from work. Christmas week was a period of merry-making, especially in the South. New Year's Day and some others gave a chance for feasting and games. Thanksgiving was observed in November in New England, but on Thanksgiving Day there was more churchgoing and more quiet than now.

Fortunately we can know exactly what the games were which boys and girls played during the various seasons of the year; for a minister named William Bentley, who lived in Salem, Massachusetts, took the trouble to put them down in his diary. As soon as the winter, with its skating and sleigh-riding, was over, says Mr. Bentley, the boys began playing marbles. The marbles were all imported from England and were clay-colored, excepting some black-and-white spotted ones called "gaydoes." After marbles came top-spinning, and then bat and ball. The ball was made of rags covered with leather; the bat was two or three feet long and was flat on one side and round on the other. In the autumn the boys and girls flew kites made of paper and having long tails. The tail was to balance the kite, and was made of a piece of string with bits of rag or paper tied at short distances apart. Football was also played in the autumn, but Mr. Bentley says that so many got their shins bruised that the better-educated people refused

to take part! Instead they played handball, in which they threw the ball against a house or a fence. A game known as "prisoner's base" (which is still played), wrestling, quoit-throwing, and other sports were also popular.

Marriages and Funerals. Marriages were more of an event for the whole neighborhood than they are today. Many girls were married at about the present age of a freshman in high school.¹ Families were large — sometimes fourteen, twenty, or even, in extreme cases, twenty-five children.

At the time of a marriage there might be two or three days of festivities. There would be a big supper, and perhaps card-playing and dancing. If the newly married couple lived on the frontier and were to start housekeeping, the men in the neighborhood might help put up the heavy timbers of a cabin. The women would cook enough food so that all might have plenty. And everybody — men, women, and children² — would have games, jokes, and a good time.

It is strange to think of funerals as times of feasting. Nevertheless, in colonial times a funeral was likely to be attended by people from the country round about for miles. At such times great dinners were common in the middle and Southern colonies. Expensive mourning gifts were sometimes given to those who attended the funeral. On one occasion in Massachusetts three thousand pairs of gloves were sent to mourners; on another, two hundred rings. Cases were known of people who spent so much money in giving an elaborate funeral that they were poor for the rest of their lives.

¹ A history of northern New Hampshire tells of a girl married there in 1772 when she was only twelve and a half.

² In colonial times children were expected to be so quiet that perhaps anything about their manners ought to be placed in a quiet footnote rather than in the middle of the page.

For instance, one famous book on how children should behave told how to invite a person to dinner. The child was to say, "Sir, you shall oblige me very much if you will do me the honour to take my poor dinner with me."

Boys and girls were taught also to bow as they entered or left the schoolroom, and to bow to everybody whom they met on the road.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of amusements and sports most common in the colonies in 1763. Underline those in your list which are still common today.

2. Read "Children's Games" and "Puritan Playthings," in Mary H. MacElroy's *Work and Play in Colonial Days*, chaps. iv, v; also Maud Wilder Goodwin's *The Colonial Cavalier, or Southern Life before the Revolution*, pp. 141-146. This treats of amusements in the Southern colonies.

3. In colonial times marriage festivities were extensive and common, girls frequently married before the age of fourteen, and a widow frequently remarried very soon after the death of her husband. Explain these customs.

4. Give a brief floor talk on "Amusements and Customs Then and Now," "then" meaning about 1763. Read Mary C. Crawford's *Social Life in Old New England*, chaps. xii and xiii.

UNIT II. MAKING A LIVING AND TRAVELING ABOUT

It was no easy matter for those who lived in colonial times to make a living and travel about. Men, boys, women, and girls all had to do their part in providing food, clothing, and shelter. Few people traveled overland any great distance because of the poor roads and meager ways of getting about. Scores of the conveniences known to present-day Americans were wholly unknown to their forefathers of 1763.

1. WHO WERE THE WORKERS AND WHAT DID THEY DO?

Work for Man and Boy. The one thing that the New World possessed in great abundance was fertile land. Food could be grown, or domestic animals raised on it; fuel could be cut and frequently game could be shot on it. All these, however, required labor, and plenty of it.

In general it was easy to acquire land. It was the custom in New England to give each new settler from ten to fifty acres. In New Jersey and Pennsylvania even larger amounts could be easily obtained. Virginia gave fifty acres to anybody who brought in a laborer, and he could secure more land by bringing in more laborers. Conditions were as easy in the other Southern colonies as in Virginia.

No kind of work, therefore, was so nearly universal as farm work. In New England every farmer had his live stock, which supplied him with milk and meat and gave the men and boys the morning and evening "chores," such as milking the cows and feeding all the animals. In the garden were grown the various vegetables, and these required planting, hoeing, and gathering. The fields were planted in wheat, corn, and rye, and these demanded attention. Except that the crops varied a little in the middle and Southern colonies, the round of work was the same as it was in New England.

Labor on the farm was more difficult then than it is now, because the tools were so poor. Agricultural implements were little better in 1763 than they had been in Egypt when the pyramids were built. There was no power-driven machinery, of course. The plows were made of wood, except for a metal point and share. They were pulled by slow-moving oxen. All the grain was cut by hand with a sickle or a scythe. When the grains of wheat or of rye were to be separated from the chaff, the stalks were thrown on the barn floor and beaten by the farmer and his boys with wooden sticks, called "flails." This was slow, hard work.

Nor were sowing, hoeing, and reaping the only work for every day. The farm tools and furniture had to be made, or at any rate mended, by the farmer and his sons. There were shoes to be made or repaired. Plenty of fuel for the fireplace had to be cut in the woods, drawn to the house, sawed and split into the proper lengths, and piled up ready for use. Some

farmers made shingles, clapboards, nails, and other things to sell or to send to seacoast towns for export.

Work for Woman and Girl. The old saying "A woman's work is never done" was never more true than on a colonial farm. The housework for the large families of those days was in itself a huge task — the cooking, washing, ironing, and keeping the house in order. Upon the women and girls fell



PLOWING IN COLONIAL TIMES

also the responsibility for making and mending all the clothing. Making clothing in colonial times meant combing out the cotton which came from the fields, or the wool from the sheep's back, spinning it into threads or yarn, weaving the yarn into cloth, and then cutting and sewing the cloth. The mother and the girls also made or helped to make the candles, the butter, and the soap. Perhaps they helped also to weed the garden, to make the brooms, or to pick the feathers from the ducks or chickens that were to be eaten for the next meal. In the North the mother of the family and her

daughters had to do all these things themselves, for help was scarce; in the South there were more servants, — at least on the large plantations, — but the women and the girls had to see to it that the women's work was done.

A girl in Connecticut at this time set down in her diary an account of her daily tasks. Here is what she wrote:

Fixed gown, — Mend Mother's Riding Hood, — Spun short thread, — Fixed two gowns, — Carded tow, — Spun linen, — Worked on Cheesebasket, — Hatchel'd Flax, — . . . did 51 lb., — Pleated and ironed, — Milked the cows, — Read a sermon, — Spooled a piece, — Spun linen, did 50 knots, — Made a broom of Guinea Wheat Straw, — Spun thread to whiten, — Set a red dye, — Had two scholars, — Carded two pounds of wool, — Spun harness twine, — Scoured the pewter.

With such a round of daily duties it is no wonder that the women of the farm found little leisure for less necessary work. Nevertheless, many of them managed to do a little fancy knitting, embroidery, lace-making, and painting on glass. Little girls were often taught to knit when they were only four years old, so that they could do all kinds of fancy sewing, knitting, and weaving by the time they were grown up.

One of the most popular kinds of fancy work for girls was the sampler. A sampler was originally a piece of cloth on which designs were worked that might be used as models. The colonial girl put into her sampler the best stitches that she knew. Frequently she put on the alphabet, sometimes the multiplication table, and pictures of houses, animals, flowers, and fruits, and nearly always her own name. Many samplers are considered very valuable today.

Fishing, Shipping, and Manufacturing. The few people who were not farmers engaged mainly in fishing, shipping, and manufacturing.

Perhaps a thousand ships and ten thousand men in New England were engaged in fishing. Another large group was busied in constructing the ships for this business and keeping

them in repair. The Yankee shipbuilder became so famous that many vessels were sold in England.¹

Other colonists were needed in the business of importing and exporting. Most manufactured goods were brought to the colonies from England. When the ships went back across



A SAMPLER MADE IN 1822

the sea, they carried such colonial products as wheat, lumber, and shingles. The importance of this industry may be guessed from the following numbers of ships entering from foreign ports and leaving the colonies for countries abroad in 1760 :

	SHIPS ENTERING	SHIPS LEAVING
New England	846	1130
New York and Pennsylvania	772	833
Southern colonies	1326	1500

¹ The pine trees of New England were generally considered the best material for masts. Especially large and straight ones were marked with an arrow, which meant that they must be reserved for the king's use.

The colonists, of course, did but little manufacturing, and what little they did was crude, being done principally in the home or on the plantation on rainy days and during the winter evenings. Nevertheless, considerable progress was made. Shoes and hats were manufactured, and nails, lumber, and shingles. A single town in Massachusetts made thirty thousand yards of cloth in one year. Such progress was enough to make English manufacturers afraid that the colonists might take away some of their business. They even went so far as to get Parliament to pass laws to stop American manufacturing. In 1732 England restricted the manufacture of hats, and in 1750 the manufacture of iron. The laws stirred up the colonists and were not always obeyed.

The Professions in Colonial Times. There were only a few ministers, doctors, lawyers, and teachers in colonial times. The minister was held in high esteem, especially in New England and to some extent in the other colonies. Lawyers were frequently looked upon as members of a shrewd and not very honest profession. There were but few doctors, and most of these were poorly trained. The school-teachers were likewise badly trained or not trained at all. Frequently men had to practice several professions in order to make a living; thus, a lawyer or a minister might teach enough Latin and Greek to boys of the town to enable them to get to college.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Read the excellent treatment of colonial agriculture in J. S. Sanford's *Story of Agriculture in the United States*, chaps. v, vi.
2. Compare the kinds of work done by men and boys on a present-day farm with that done by men and boys on a farm in colonial times.
3. Make three lists as follows:
 - a. Things done by women and girls in colonial times.
 - b. Things done by women and girls on farms at the present time.
 - c. Things done by women and girls in city homes at the present time.

4. Show how England tried to prevent the colonists from manufacturing useful articles. Give two or three reasons why England did not wish the colonists to engage in manufacturing.

5. Explain why the supply of doctors, lawyers, and teachers was so limited before 1763.

6. Make a list of the occupations that were most common in 1763 in the New England colonies ; in the middle colonies ; in the Southern colonies.

2. HOW A SUPPLY OF LABOR WAS FOUND

There was always a scarcity of labor in colonial times. There was always much to be done, and there were few people to do it. Besides the farmers and the commercial and professional people, however, there were many indentured servants, slaves, and apprentices, who helped to do a great deal of the hard work.

What were Indentured Servants? There were many people in Europe who wished to get to America but who were too poor to pay their way. Sometimes the captain of a ship would pay for the passage of such people, and, in return, they would agree to work for anybody for a period of a few years. Upon the arrival of the ship, advertisements would be sent out to the effect that such and such a number of indentured men, women, and children would be for sale at a certain port. People in need of servants could go to the port and buy them from the captain. Sometimes men bought up a group of them and drove them about through the country, selling them as opportunity offered. After the indentured servant had worked for his master for a term of years, he was to be set free. The term varied from three or four years to seven years.

Sometimes the prisoners were taken out of the jails in England and turned over to a ship captain, who took them to the colonies and sold them as servants. A few of these

were honest people who had been wrongfully put into prison. One of them, after serving his time, rose to be the chief law officer of the colony of Virginia. Many of them became school-teachers. But others of the prisoners were wicked persons who were a great danger to the colonies. Although



AN ITINERANT TINKER

A picture made in modern times of a traveling "jack-of-all-trades"

the colonies protested and even passed laws to prevent the immigration of prisoners, England nevertheless continued to send them.

Slaves. The first American slaves, we remember, were those brought to Virginia in 1619. By 1763 negroes were to be found in all the colonies, though only about ninety thousand were in the Northern and middle colonies, as compared with three hundred thousand in the South.

They were brought to America by slave-traders who went to the coast of Africa with cargoes of

bright-colored cloth and rum. There they were able to kidnap negroes or to find native chiefs who would exchange a batch of slaves for the cloth and rum. The cargo of blacks was then brought to American ports and sold as the indentured servants were sold.

Apprentices. In addition to the indentured servants and the slaves, there were "apprentices." These were ordinarily the

children of poor parents. A child who was to be an apprentice was given, or "bound out," to a master until he was twenty-one. Girls were bound out for housework; boys, for learning a trade, such as printing. In return for his labor all these years the apprentice was supposed to receive a good training: if a girl, in spinning, knitting, and the care of the household; if a boy, in his chosen trade. In all cases they were to receive food, clothing, and a place to sleep. When the period of service was over, the apprentice was supposed to be free and to be given a present, such as some extra clothing.

While some masters gave their apprentices a comfortable home and taught them a useful trade, others were extremely cruel. If the apprentice became unhappy about his work, or felt that his master was too harsh, he sometimes ran away. Benjamin Franklin, as a boy, was an example. At the age of twelve he was apprenticed to his brother in Boston to learn the trade of a printer, but becoming dissatisfied he ran away to Philadelphia. In later times the system was given up, and now the boy learns a trade either in a training school or by taking a position with some employer. An engagement of this sort can now be ended either by the apprentice or by the employer on short notice, without waiting until the boy is twenty-one.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Show the good and the bad sides of the system of labor based on indentured servants.

2. Compare and contrast slaves and indentured servants with respect to their original home, how the colonists secured them, the work they did, the freedom they enjoyed, their treatment by owners, and their outlook on life.

3. Comment on the good and bad sides of the apprenticeship system as used in colonial times. Has the system entirely disappeared?

4. Read "Slavery in the Colonies," in Marie L. Herdman's *Story of the United States*, chap. xviii.

3. CONDITIONS IN COLONIAL TIMES WITH RESPECT TO TRAVEL, TRANSPORTATION, AND COMMUNICATION

How People Traveled. In colonial days anybody who had traveled to England or to the West Indies or anywhere else on business or pleasure was a rare man. His neighbors pointed him out and besieged him for news about what he had seen. Many people, of course, moved from one place to another to get better land or pleasanter living conditions; but when they were settled, they stayed where they were. People were too poor and travel was too hard for much going about. Hence the great majority never saw much of the country and knew very little of what was going on outside their neighborhood.¹

In earlier times all travel had to be on foot, on horseback, in some sort of canoe or boat, or (in winter) on the ice. The Indians had used narrow footpaths through the forests, and these were followed by the colonists. The settlers also made new paths, or "trails." A trail was made by cutting out the underbrush and making "blazes," or marks, on trees with an ax. Any traveler could follow a well-blazed trail, and this method is still used in marking mountain and forest paths. Where rivers and streams were large and easily traveled, as they were in the Southern colonies, canoes and boats were commonly used. When a neighborhood became somewhat settled, the colonists went everywhere on horseback. Husbands carried their wives behind them on a sort of pillow called a pillion. Sometimes two or three little children were placed in front. On long journeys two people might use the

¹ This fact probably explains why our ancestors believed such foolish things about other countries and about other parts of this country. For example, there was Jedidiah Morse's *American Geography*, which for many years was used in colleges and schools all over the United States and was looked upon as very accurate. It told about many extraordinary animals which we now know did not exist. Among other things it said that the alligator in the South swallowed a large number of pine knots just before winter began and lived on them during the cold season!

"ride-and-tie" method. One would ride for a distance, dismount, tie the horse to a tree, and walk on. The other would later come along on foot, untie the horse, and ride for a distance, passing the first traveler. This process would be repeated until both reached the house or the village to which



A COACH USED BY THE BEEKMAN FAMILY OF NEW YORK CITY SOON AFTER 1776

It is now preserved by the New York Historical Society

they were planning to go. Bearskins or sheepskins and other makeshifts served as saddles where real ones were lacking.

In parts of the country where roads had been built, all sorts of wagons and sleighs came into use. Small carriages with two wheels were most common. Wealthy people had elaborate coaches; George Washington, for example, had one which is still preserved. They were drawn by several horses, which were needed to pull the coach over steep hills and through mudholes. Sleighs, which were introduced by the Dutch, were used in winter in the Northern and middle colonies.

Colonial Roads. The roads were not, of course, the well-made highways which are common today. They followed the winding paths and trails which the Indians and the earlier settlers had used, up and down the hills and through swampy or rough country. In the summer they were deep in dust, and in the spring they were almost impassable because of mud. Bridges were lacking, so that streams had to be forded or crossed by a raft called a "ferry." If the stream was high because of heavy rain or spring floods, the traveler might have to wait for days until the water had gone down. In the course of such a delay many travelers might collect at the crossing. They would have to make shift to stay over night in any way they could. By 1763 there were passable roads in the more thickly settled parts of the country near the coast from New Hampshire to South Carolina.

Carrying Goods. Carrying freight in colonial times was difficult. In the forests of Maryland and Virginia there were a few "rolling-roads." These were narrow passages along which hogsheads of tobacco were rolled from the plantations down to the banks of the rivers, to be loaded on boats. Horses were used, with goods packed on their backs. When Braddock was leading his expedition to Fort Duquesne in 1755, he asked Franklin for help in getting transportation for his supplies. Franklin advertised for one hundred and fifty wagons and fifteen hundred pack horses.

Pennsylvania roads were better than those in most colonies, and it was here that the famous "Conestoga" wagon was used. It was so named because it was made in Conestoga valley, a little west of Philadelphia. The Conestoga wagon was heavily and strongly built, it had four large wheels and a top, and it could carry from four to six tons. Four or more powerful horses were used to pull the loads. At one time it was estimated that about ten thousand of these wagons were used in carrying freight in and near Philadelphia.

The Post Office. Today much of our communication with the rest of the world is by letters, magazines, and newspapers, which are brought to us by the post office. There was a postal system in colonial times, but it was a comparatively small and crude one. Mails came seldom, and it took days to send a letter even from Boston to New York. Three days were



A CONESTOGA WAGON

One of the most popular and useful wagons of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries

necessary to send anything from New York to Philadelphia until Franklin became postmaster for all the colonies and cut the time down to thirty-six hours.

Men on horseback carried letters and papers from town to town. To while away the time as they rode they sometimes took along some knitting, and probably read most of the mail that was not sealed.

On the whole, mails were so seldom received that people on isolated farms and plantations gladly welcomed any traveler,

however much of a stranger he might be, because he might bring news of the rest of the world. The same reason explains the popularity of fairs, picnics, weddings, and funerals. On such occasions there was sure to be a crowd, and the farmer could find out what his neighbors were doing. If anyone had received a letter from any distance, everybody demanded that he read it aloud, so that all might hear.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of the ways and means of travel now common that were unknown in 1763. Make a similar list of methods much used in colonial days but little used now.

2. Read "Traveling by Stage-Coach," in L. B. Evans's *America First*, pp. 134-139; read also "Two Centuries of the Post Office" and "Pioneer Travelers of a Hundred Years," in John T. Faris's *When America was Young*, chaps. v, ix.

3. Show why a much-traveled man in colonial times was so rare.

4. Make a list of the difficulties the traveler of 1763 met that would not be met today.

5. "Moving Freight in Colonial Times." Discuss briefly.

6. Explain why fairs, picnics, weddings, and funerals were so well attended in colonial times.

7. Test yourself on the meaning of the following: Conestoga wagon, "rolling-roads," "ride-and-tie" method of travel, blazed trails.

UNIT III. EDUCATION, RELIGION, AND GOVERNMENT

Three important phases of a people's life are education, religion, and government. To each of these the colonists gave much attention. What they thought and did forms the background of our present-day thinking and acting with reference to these things. The old saying that the roots of the present lie buried deep in the past is more than a half-truth when applied to education, religion, and government.

1. HOW ONE GOT AN EDUCATION IN 1763

Did Many People go to School? Although there were some schools in the colonies, that boy was fortunate who had a chance to go to them. In the newer parts of all the colonies the people were busy clearing the forest, building homes, fighting the Indians, and earning a living. They had little time and energy, and no money, to spend on educating their children.

New England had the most schools. In Massachusetts and New Hampshire the laws required every town that contained a hundred families to start a grammar school. In Connecticut every town with seventy families was to have a school. Although these laws were not completely carried out, a large number of schools were started. In the middle colonies the children were frequently educated by the churches or else in private schools. The Pennsylvania Germans and Quakers, for example, as well as the New York Episcopalians, often had schools connected with their churches. In the Southern colonies there were almost no public schools such as were found in New England. Instead, the owners of large plantations generally hired private teachers, or "tutors," to educate their families. The boy who was fortunate enough to have a well-trained teacher received an excellent education; the great majority, however, had scarcely any "book learning" at all.

What was a New England School Like? In New England the church building was sometimes used as a schoolhouse, because the minister was frequently the teacher. Sometimes a private house would be used. If the people were widely scattered over a small town, the teacher might keep school in a house in one part of the town for a little while, and then move to another part and repeat the work.

In the course of time most New England towns got a school building of one kind or another. Generally the schools were

not well lighted, and no attention was paid to ventilation. Heat was supplied in earlier times by a fireplace, and later by stoves. Wood for the fireplace or the stove was furnished by the parents of the pupils who attended the school. On winter mornings the teacher or one of the bigger boys went early to school to start the fire.

There were no luxuries in the colonial schoolhouse and few comforts. A wide shelf running around the sides of the room held everything that was thrown upon it. A high desk of rough lumber was all the teacher had. Holes were bored in the



AN ARTIST'S IDEA OF THE APPEARANCE OF A COLONIAL SCHOOL

From Fenning's "Universal Spelling-Book"

floor, stakes were driven into the holes, and planks were fastened to the stakes. These were the children's seats. There were a few tattered, well-thumbed books which the pupils themselves supplied. That was all.¹

What Subjects were Taught? The colonial boy was troubled by only a few subjects in school. It is important to say *boy*, because it was not considered necessary or desirable for *girls* to go to school. If a girl could read, write, and do simple problems in arithmetic, she was considered to have had an education. Most girls and women, however, could not do those ordinary things. Even the wife of George Washington could not write without misspelling simple words.

¹ The following illustrates the primitive conditions under which some pupils in colonial times started their education. In 1769 a small boy named Wallace was learning to write in Haverhill, New Hampshire. He practiced on birch bark with the quill from a turkey's wing.

Most boys were taught reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, and the catechism. The catechism was a series of questions and answers about religious matters. A few went on into higher subjects in mathematics and into grammar, Latin, Greek, and geography.

Discipline and Games. All children were punished much more severely in colonial times than they are now. Indentured servants, apprentices, and pupils in school were frequently whipped in a way that would seem savage today. School-teachers kept switches of birch branches, or even clubs with strips of leather attached, with which to strike any pupil who was unruly.¹

Games at school, on the other hand, were much like those which we play today. Hopscotch was common, as well as many kinds of tag. The girls made cats' cradles and played blindman's buff. Everybody enjoyed "Here we go round the mulberry bush," "I put my right foot in," and "London Bridge is falling down."

The Colleges. The colleges of colonial times gave instruction of about the grade that is now given in our better high schools. Boys went to them earlier than they do now -- even at the age of eleven and twelve. Most of these early colleges were started for the training of ministers, and show how anxious our ancestors were to supply a good education to the clergy at least. The earliest colleges, with the years when they were founded, are these:

Harvard, in Massachusetts, 1636.

William and Mary, in Virginia, 1693.

Yale, in Connecticut, 1701.

College of Philadelphia (now called University of Pennsylvania), 1740.

¹ It was not always the pupil who got all the punishment. There was a school-teacher of bad character in 1791 who was made to sit for one hour on the gallows where criminals were hanged, then to stand two hours in the pillory, and lastly to receive ninety lashes with a whip.

College of New Jersey (now called Princeton), 1746.

King's College (now called Columbia), in New York, 1754.

Rhode Island College (now called Brown), 1764.

Dartmouth, in New Hampshire, 1769.

Books and Newspapers in Colonial Times. Books and newspapers helped to educate the people in colonial times, even if they were not as common or as attractively printed as today.



THE COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY AS IT APPEARED ABOUT 1732.
(FROM AN OLD PRINT)

In many of the large towns the bookseller was an important character. Not many people had the money to buy books, nor the time and the knowledge necessary for reading them. Those who did read books, however, read and reread them until the pages were known almost by heart. The Bible and the almanac in particular were to be found everywhere and had a great influence on colonial life.¹

In 1763 thirty or forty newspapers had been established.

¹ There were several almanacs at various times in the colonies. Most famous was one printed each year by Benjamin Franklin. It gave the days of the weeks and the months, advised farmers how to carry on their farms, and included wise remarks and jokes. "One mend-fault is worth two find-faults, but one find-fault is better than two make-faults" was one of Franklin's well-known bits of wisdom.

Their circulation, however, was slight, and their life was generally short. They were small ; indeed, probably a single Sunday edition of a large city newspaper today contains more than the issues of a whole year of a colonial paper. It is impossible to tell how many people read the news in those days, but perhaps not more than one person in three hundred subscribed to any newspaper whatever.

Libraries, of course, were uncommon. The town minister, the wealthy merchant or planter, the lawyer, and here and there a man of unusual education might have a collection of books. William Byrd of Virginia had a famous one containing more than three thousand volumes. Free public libraries such as are found in every city today, were unknown in colonial times. There were a few libraries which were collected and owned by clubs or societies. These were sometimes open to the public. With these exceptions most people were able to read only the few books which they owned themselves.¹

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Search the books listed on pages 106–107 for additional information on education in colonial times.
2. "Getting an Education Then and Now." Give a brief talk on this topic, "then" meaning in colonial days.
3. Give a word picture of a New England school in colonial days.
4. Compare colonial schools with those of today in respect to subjects taught, games played, and punishments inflicted.

¹ Books for boys and girls were generally rather serious, and intended to teach something like the alphabet or the multiplication table. For instance, one book taught the alphabet by the following rime :

A was an apple pie;

B bit it,

C cut it,

and so on down to Z. Another had little jingles like these :

J was a Jay

that prattles and toys,

K was a Key

that locked up bad boys.

5. Find out how many of the eight colleges founded between 1636 and 1770 are still in existence.

6. Make a "then" and "now" table of facts relating to books and newspapers. In one column place the "thens" and in another the "nows," "then" meaning about 1763. Examples:

THEN	Now
a. Neither books nor newspapers common.	a. Both books and newspapers very common.
b. Books read again and again. (Continue, giving as many as you can.)	b. Books usually read once. (Continue, giving as many as you can.)

2. WHAT THE CHURCH MEANT TO THE COLONISTS

Religion a Cause of Colonization. We remember that the desire for religious freedom was an important reason why people were ready to leave the Old World and go to the New. Massachusetts, Plymouth, Pennsylvania, and Maryland in particular had their origin in the attempt to escape persecution.

The two most powerful churches were the Congregational and the Episcopal. The Congregationalists had their stronghold in New England; the Episcopalians were most numerous in New York and the South. Besides these two sects, there were Presbyterians and Quakers, Catholics, Baptists, and Methodists, together with several German and French sects. At first the stronger churches made attempts to compel the weaker churches to go out of existence. There was persecution, such as we have noticed in connection with the Quakers and Roger Williams. This tendency died out in course of time. The various churches became more tolerant of one another, so that by 1763 freedom for all religions was pretty well established. Here and there the laws gave fewer privileges to Catholics than to others, but the laws were not fully carried out; hence it is fair to say that by 1763 the American idea that any man ought to be allowed to worship in the way he believed to be right was the general rule.

The Church Building in New England. The meetinghouse in the New England town was one of the first buildings to be put up. Generally it was in the middle of the town, where all could reach it conveniently. At first it was plain, unpainted, and without either tower or steeple. As the town grew, the building was made more elaborate. A tower or a steeple was built. A bell and possibly a clock were placed in the tower. The doors and the windows were made as attractive as the people knew how to make them.

The interior was bare and even uncomfortable. At one end was the pulpit, high above the seats, or pews. Sometimes it was shaped like an hour glass; sometimes it had a curved or bowed front. The pews were square and were owned by the people who sat in them. Important people like the

deacons and government officials were allowed to have pews up front. The side pews were for commoner people. There might be a gallery where the older children sat, the younger ones being downstairs with their parents. There were no lights and no heat. Sunday service in the winter was therefore extremely uncomfortable. People had to wear heavy clothes, and they even took small boxes of hot coals from



EXTERIOR OF OLD NEW ENGLAND CHURCH

Old North Church, Boston, built in 1723

the fireplace. These were put on the floor of the pew, under the feet, and gave a little warmth.

The Minister and his Sermon. The minister was not merely the religious leader in the New England town: he advised the townspeople in all their affairs and reproved young and old when they did anything that he considered wrong. When he entered the church on Sunday morning, with his wife beside him and his children behind, all the congregation rose and stood reverently until he had taken his place in the pulpit.

His sermons were long and were read with no attempt at oratory. He spoke for an hour or even two hours (once a Massachusetts minister preached for nearly five hours), while a "tithingman" went around with a long pole and kept tired and sleepy youngsters awake.¹

Everybody went to church, driving in or walking from distant farms with the whole family and carrying enough to eat for dinner. After church the people had their noonday meal. The men gathered in small groups and talked about the crops, the farm animals, or the weather, while the women exchanged gossip and chatted about household matters. The children talked together and had as much quiet fun as they could without being reproved by their elders. Altogether, the Sunday was not so unpleasant as it sometimes seems to have been.

The Episcopal Church Building. The Episcopal church buildings were generally made of brick and were more beautiful and elaborate than the New England meetinghouse. The pulpit was, as a rule, richly adorned. The seats were sometimes made of mahogany. The governor might even have a sort of roof, or "canopy," over his special pew. In addition to the church building there was usually a house (called the rectory) for the minister. Ordinarily a bell was rung to tell the countryside when church time arrived.

¹ A man once interrupted a church service in one of the colonies and was taken outside and given ten lashes on the back.

The Episcopal Minister. In such colonies as Maryland, Virginia, and the Carolinas the ministers were paid out of the public funds. This caused much complaint, for many of the people were not Episcopalians and objected to being taxed to support a church which they did not attend. This practice was later done away with, because it did not seem to be fair.



THE INTERIOR OF ST. DAVID'S CHURCH, RADNOR, PENNSYLVANIA, BUILT IN 1715

The sermon in these churches was much shorter than it was in New England ; it might be so brief, indeed, as to take only fifteen minutes to deliver. In the larger churches there was music on an organ and by trained singers. New England church people were doubtful whether the use of musical instruments in church was allowed by the Bible.

The Smaller Churches. Aside from the Congregationalists and Episcopalians, the Baptists and Presbyterians were the most numerous and the most active in getting new members. They sent missionaries all through the colonies, but partic-

ularly throughout the less settled parts of the South. Here they became increasingly strong.

Some of the other churches had many members in special colonies. The Catholics were most numerous in Maryland, the Quakers and German sects in the middle colonies, and the Dutch Reformed Church in New York.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Read "Sunday in the Colonies," in Alice Morse Earle's *Home Life in Colonial Days*, chap. xv, and "Sunday in the Colonies," in L. B. Evans's *America First*, pp. 125-129.

2. Compare and contrast church buildings in colonial times with church buildings of our day with respect to shape, size, seats, heat, light, appearance outside and inside, and location.

3. Explain why the Catholics were most numerous in Maryland, the Quakers and German sects in Pennsylvania, the Episcopalians in Virginia and South Carolina, the Congregationalists in New England, and the Baptists, Presbyterians, and Methodists in the back-country districts of the South.

4. Do not miss seeing the pictures in J. Carroll Mansfield's *Highlights of History*, pp. 136-140.

3. HOW THE AMERICAN COLONIES WERE GOVERNED

How the King looked after his Colonies. The king of England could not, of course, look after all the affairs of his thirteen American colonies; hence he had a committee of men called the Board of Trade. The Board looked after commerce with the colonies, kept track of laws passed in America, and carried on a correspondence with the governors.

In each colony the king was represented by a governor. Although the governor was sometimes elected by the people, as in Connecticut, or chosen by the king or by the proprietor, he was expected to see that the king had his rights in the colonies. The governor called the legislature for a meeting,

and he vetoed laws which he thought the king would object to. He appointed many officers, such as judges for the colonial courts, and was commander of the colony "militia" when they were called into service. Over one important matter he had no control. This was taxation. The legislature of each colony decided how much money should be raised by taxes.

The Colonial Legislature. The legislatures were generally composed of two groups or bodies: (1) One group was called the Council and usually had twelve members. They advised the governor on important matters, helped to pass laws, and acted also as the highest court in the colony. (2) The second group was the Assembly, or House of Representatives. It contained members from the different towns or counties. It passed laws about matters concerning the people of the whole colony.

Town and County Government. There were three different systems of local government in the colonies:

1. In New England the farms were small and the people lived close together in towns. This made it easy for the citizens to hold meetings wherever they pleased. Hence, as we remember, they held town meetings in which money for the schools, roads, and the poor was voted. To be sure, there were counties in New England, but they did little except to hold courts for the trial of prisoners.

2. The people of the Southern colonies lived on large plantations and were therefore farther apart; hence Virginia, for example, had "county meetings" instead of town meetings. People came to the meetings from all over the county, on foot, on horseback, or in boats. The county business was done. The men gossiped, exchanged stories, swapped horses, made trades, had sports and wrestling matches, and listened to speeches. The care of the poor in these counties was handed over to the "parish," which generally meant the officers of the Episcopal churches.

3. The middle colonies adopted a mixture of town and county government. In New York the towns were first started. Then the counties were organized. In Pennsylvania the county came first, and then the town. It is a simple matter nowadays to find out in any state whether most of the work of local government is done by the town or by the county.



METHODS OF PUNISHMENT USED IN COLONIAL TIMES: THE PILLORY AND
THE WHIPPING POST

Voting and Enforcing the Law. Not more than one person in twelve or fifteen could vote or hold political office in colonial times. Nowadays about half the people can become voters if they wish to take the trouble. There are two main reasons for this difference:

1. Only men could vote then.
2. In general, only people who owned property could vote.
3. In many colonies nobody could vote unless he held certain religious beliefs.

Many colonial laws had to do with things which are almost never regulated nowadays. Sometimes they forbade a man

to wear long hair or to smoke on the street or to play cards. Sometimes women were forbidden to wear veils or lace or short sleeves, but these laws were commonly broken.

Punishments were more severe in colonial times than they are now. Many offenses that now lead merely to a fine or imprisonment were then punished by death. In Virginia as many as twenty-seven offenses were punished in this way. Sometimes people were "branded," or marked with a red-hot iron; sometimes they were whipped, or had their ears cut, or were made to sit on a wooden bench in the center of the town with their feet and hands fastened between two bars of wood. This device was called the stocks. Many other penalties were also inflicted in public. Crowds assembled to see a thief hanged, just as they might go to see a circus parade today. Such a thing would never be allowed now, but in colonial times it was thought that people would be less likely to commit crimes if they saw the penalty carried out before their eyes.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. "Governing Colonies almost Three Thousand Miles Away." Discuss this topic as it applied to the king of England and the American colonies.

2. Explain the importance of the fact that the legislature in each colony decided how money should be raised and spent, even to the governor's salary.

3. Account for the three systems of local government that grew up in the colonies.

4. "Strange Laws, Crimes, and Punishments of Colonial Days." List as many items under this heading as you can from your reading in the text and elsewhere. See *Curious Punishments of Bygone Days*, by Alice Morse Earle.

BEFORE LEAVING DIVISION THREE

I. Debate one or more of the following subjects :

1. *Resolved*, That life on a Southern plantation was more pleasant for the planter's family than life in a wealthy New England home.
2. *Resolved*, That there was more bad than good in the system of indentured servants as practiced in colonial times.
3. *Resolved*, That the girls in colonial days had more educational advantages than the boys.

II. Prepare the following for your notebook :

1. A table of comparisons of the three groups of colonies with respect to climate, soil, chief occupations, products grown, schools, churches, government, classes of society, system of labor most common, and language most extensively spoken. The form of your table will be as follows :

ITEM COMPARED	NORTHERN	MIDDLE	SOUTHERN
<i>a.</i> Climate	-----	-----	-----
<i>b.</i> Soil	-----	-----	-----
<i>c.</i> Etc.	-----	-----	-----

2. A classification and mounting of all pictures on colonial life that you have collected while studying this unit. Arrange your pictures under appropriate headings.

III. Be able to do the following :

1. Give a brief report to the class on one of the twelve books listed on pages 106-107.
2. Give a floor talk or write a brief, well-organized discussion on :
 - a.* A Sunday in Colonial New England.
 - b.* Amusements in Colonial Times.
 - c.* Colonial Colleges.
 - d.* Systems of Labor in the Colonies.
 - e.* Making a Living in Colonial Times.
 - f.* Modes of Travel used by the Colonists.
 - g.* Ways of punishing Offenders against the Law.
 - h.* Kinds of Houses used by the Colonists.
 - i.* Funeral Customs among the Colonists.

DIVISION FOUR

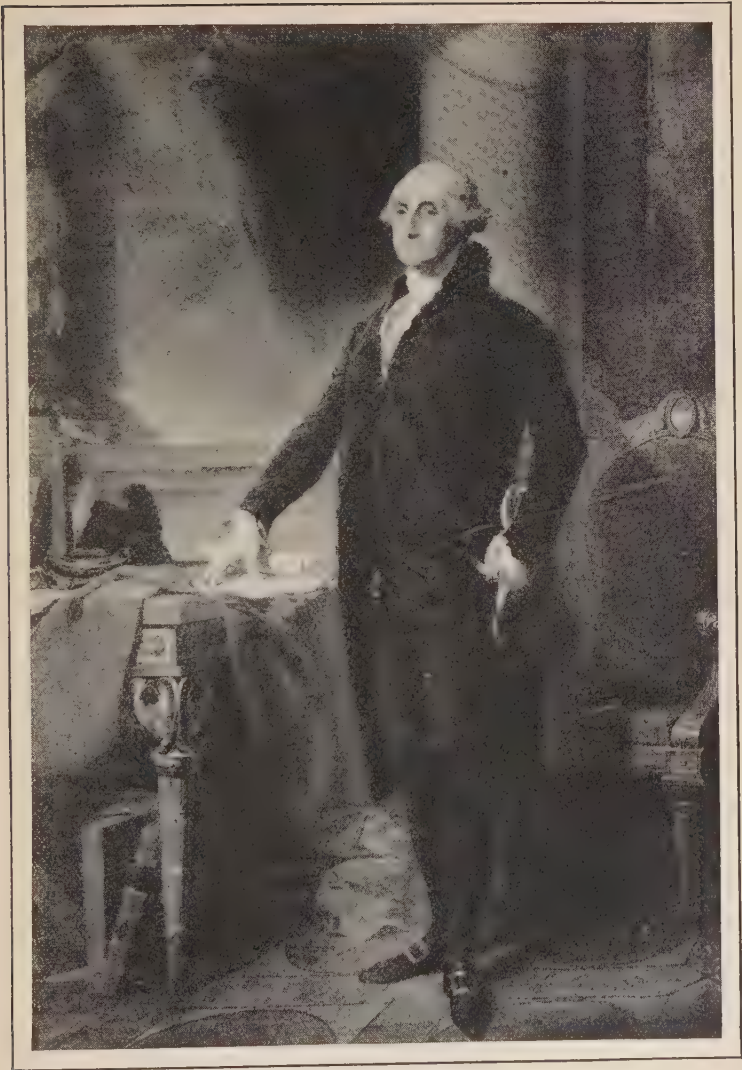
*THE REVOLUTION AND THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE
AMERICAN NATION, 1763-1789*

FOREWORD

When George Washington died in 1799 the French army parading in Paris draped its flags in mourning. The flags of the British navy in the English Channel were lowered to half-mast as a sign of grief. England mourning for a man who had led a long war against — England! Moreover, English writers since that time have praised Washington very highly. One of them says of him, "No nobler figure ever stood in the forefront of a nation's life." Calm, silent, patient, and with endurance, courage, and good judgment, Washington was one of the world's greatest men.

Here in the United States we have always believed that Washington was a man to love and imitate. One of our states was named for him; the capital city bears his name; innumerable counties, streets, squares, schools, and colleges bear the name of this splendid man.

Why do the people of foreign countries, as well as the people of the United States, value Washington so highly? In the following pages you ought to be able to discover the secret.



GEORGE WASHINGTON

From a painting by Gilbert Stuart made when Washington was about sixty-four years of age. The picture is now owned by the New York Public Library

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TWO TWELVE-BOOK LIBRARIES

I. A DAY-BY-DAY REFERENCE LIBRARY

Become familiar through constant use with as many of the twelve books below as you can while you are studying Division Four. Each of them gives interesting information about the topics treated in the text. Are you already acquainted with any in the list? Does your school library or your public library have any of them?

1. *Heroes of the American Revolution*, by Oliver Clay. Duffield & Company.
Contains material on many phases of the Revolutionary War.
2. *Sword of Liberty*, by Frank and Cortelle Hutchins. The Century Co.
Stories of two revolutions, the American and the French. Both are well told. Inasmuch as your text mentions the latter, its story will be valuable to you.
3. *The Story of John Paul Jones*, by Chelsea C. Fraser. One of the Famous Americans for Young Readers Series. Barse & Hopkins.
An account of our navy in its earliest days, as well as an interesting story of the life of a famous naval hero.
4. *On the Trail of Washington*, by F. T. Hill. D. Appleton and Company.
An account of the Revolutionary War. Contains many illustrations — some in color. The entire book can be read with interest and profit.
5. *The French War and the Revolution (1745-1782)*, edited by Francis W. Halsey. Volume III of Great Epochs in American History. Funk & Wagnalls Company.
Contains material on such topics as Braddock's defeat, the siege of Quebec, the Stamp Act, the Boston Tea Party, and the leading battles of the Revolutionary War.
6. *When America won Liberty*, by Tudor Jenks. Thomas Y. Crowell Company.
A useful reference book for the period between 1763 and 1789. One of the best on this period, because it treats so many phases of the life of the people.

7. *Washington: A Virginia Cavalier*, by W. H. Mace. Rand, McNally & Company.

A book that you will enjoy. The story is told in a simple and interesting manner. Much good material on the Revolutionary War.

8. *The Story of Benjamin Franklin*, by Clare Tree Major. Another of the Famous Americans for Young Readers Series. Barse & Hopkins.

An interesting story of the life of a remarkable man. Contains much material not found elsewhere.

9. *Nathan Hale*, by Jean Christie Root. One of the True Stories of Great Americans Series. The Macmillan Company.

The story of the life of a man who was sorry that he had but one life to give for his country. You will enjoy reading it.

10. *Stories of the American Revolution*, Part I, by Everett T. Tomlinson. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

Vivid accounts of the noble deeds of women and children who did so much to win the war.

11. *Young People's History of the American Revolution*, by Everett T. Tomlinson. D. Appleton and Company.

An account of the military phases of the Revolution. Some attention is given to causes and results.

12. *The Life of General John Sevier*, by Francis M. Turner. The Neale Publishing Company.

A good place to find material on life in the back-country districts before and during the Revolution. The history of the early settlements of this region is well presented.

II. A STORY-BOOK LIBRARY

It is expected that one or more of the books listed below will be read by each member of the class while studying Division Four. It may be that you have already read some of them. If you have, tell the class something of what they are about. Do you know of any book that you would add to the list?

1. *A Girl of '76*, by Amy E. Blanchard. W. A. Wilde Company.

The early period of the Revolution is portrayed in this story.

2. *When Boston braved the King*, by W. E. Barton. W. A. Wilde Company.

A story of "tea party" times.

3. *A Patriot Lad of Old Boston*, by Russell G. Carter. Penn Publishing Company.

Boston during the British occupation in 1775.

4. *A Little Maid of Old Philadelphia*, by Alice T. Curtis. Penn Publishing Company.

Philadelphia during the Revolution.

5. *A Little Maid of Old New York*, by Alice T. Curtis. Penn Publishing Company.

Revolutionary days in New York during the time when the British were in control of the city.

6. *Brave Deeds of Revolutionary Soldiers*, by Robert B. Duncan. George W. Jacobs & Co.

Twelve stories dealing with events connected with Lexington, Bunker Hill, Saratoga, and other important places, as well as persons connected with the war.

7. *Long Knives*, by G. C. Eggleston. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

A tale of pioneer warfare, the expedition of Clark to Illinois, and the fall of Vincennes.

8. *The Young Continentals at Trenton*, by John T. McIntyre. Penn Publishing Company.

Deals with the preparations for defending New York City and describes the battle of Long Island, the crossing of the Delaware, and the capture of the Hessians.

9. *Lads and Lassies of Other Days*, by Lillian L. Price. Silver, Burdett and Company.

A collection of eleven stories dealing with the same number of important events, most of which occurred between 1763 and 1783. You will enjoy these stories.

10. *Revolutionary Stories retold from St. Nicholas*. The Century Co.

Eighteen well-told stories of the days and deeds of those who took part in the Revolutionary War. Contains many illustrations.

11. *The Noank's Log*, by W. O. Stoddard. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

An account of the American navy at the beginning of the Revolution and the operations of privateers during the years between 1775 and 1783.

12. *Morgan's Men*, by John P. True. Little, Brown & Company.

Describes the engagements between Morgan and Tarleton at Cowpens and at other points in the South during the Revolutionary War.

DIVISION FOUR

THE REVOLUTION AND THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE AMERICAN NATION, 1763-1789

UNIT I. FEELING BETWEEN ENGLAND AND HER COLONIES, 1763-1776

If we had lived in the American colonies during the thirteen years just after 1763, we should have seen some sort of quarrel between England and her colonies nearly every year. It will help to understand how the colonists felt and why they acted as they did if we remember a few things that had gone before.

1. HOW ENGLAND TREATED HER COLONIES BEFORE 1763

What did the Colonists hope to Find in America? Most of the colonists had come over to America to get away from something in England. Some hoped to get away from a tyrannical king; some, to escape religious persecution; still others, to avoid poverty and hunger.

As we already know, the colonists for the most part lived on farms. Except in a few towns they were far from neighbors and consequently had to take care of themselves or starve to death. They were not accustomed to having police officers or soldiers to keep them in order; nor were they accustomed to being taxed except by their own town or county meeting or by the legislature of the colony. Whatever taxes were voted were very small. They had to be, for the people were poor. Moreover, most of the colonists were English, and

it is the nature of the English people to be self-reliant, or independent, and to wish to govern themselves.

Did the Colonies depend on England for Food, Clothing, and Protection? Furthermore, as the colonies grew in population, wealth, and general importance they depended less and less on England for food, clothing, and protection. When Jamestown, Plymouth, and Boston were weak settlements they were kept alive in part by ships that came over from time to time with new colonists and more food and other necessary supplies. But 1763 was one hundred and thirty-three years after the founding of Boston, one hundred and forty-three years after the landing of the *Mayflower* at Plymouth, and one hundred and fifty-six years after the beginnings of Jamestown. As we know, the colonies were sending shiploads of lumber, furs, tobacco, indigo, and wheat to England every year. They depended, of course, on England for most of their manufactured articles and for their best clothing, but they grew or made the absolutely necessary things in America.

When the Indians went on the warpath the colonists learned to take care of themselves. Away back in 1643, when the New England colonies faced the danger of an Indian war, they got together and formed the New England Confederation to protect one another. When the French and Indians became hostile during the struggle between France and England, the colonies raised troops to go out and fight. At the beginning of the French and Indian War one of the colonists, Benjamin Franklin, even suggested that all the American colonies join in one big group, a sort of New England Confederation that would include all the colonies instead of only a few.

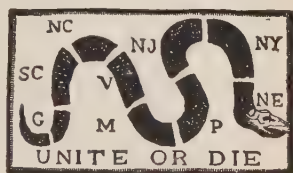
Why did not England set the Colonies Free? If the colonies were able to take care of themselves so completely, why did not the mother country set them free? The answer to this question is very simple: England expected to make a profit on her colonies.

England, like Spain and France, believed that colonies were started for the benefit of the mother country and not for the benefit of the colonists themselves. For example, laws were often suggested in Parliament with regard to American trade. When such proposals were made, most members of Parliament asked the questions "What good will these laws do *us*?" "Will they give *us* greater advantages?" Few members stopped to consider whether the laws would help the *colonists*. Still fewer people had the wisdom to consider what laws would be of advantage to *both* the mother country *and* the colonists.

Two classes of people in England were greatly benefited by the American trade and the laws regulating it :

1. The laws said that tobacco and some other goods shipped *from the colonies* must first be landed in England before being sent to any other countries. Most goods brought *to the colonies* must come from England and come in British ships. This greatly benefited British ship-owners and British manufacturers, because the Americans must get their manufactured goods from England.

2. Some goods, such as sugar and molasses, could be imported from other countries only by the payment of a heavy tax. These taxes discouraged imports from other countries and so gave the English merchants almost all the trade, at a handsome profit. The colonists, however, frequently disobeyed the laws and traded directly with other European nations, or else brought goods in without paying the taxes, — which is called smuggling. The king's officers who were placed at the various American ports to collect the taxes found themselves helpless. The import duties simply could not be collected.



A PICTURE DRAWN BY BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, TO EXPRESS THE IDEA THAT THE COLONIES MUST UNITE OR ELSE HAVE THEIR RIGHTS TAKEN AWAY BY ENGLAND

Writs of Assistance. In order to meet this difficulty the tax-collectors were instructed to get "writs of assistance," or papers issued by the courts ordering constables and all other officers and people to help the tax-collector to find smuggled goods. The collector could go into any house at any time of the day and break open boxes, or search in cellars, or prowl about in attics, to see if they contained goods on which the tax had not been paid. The people of Massachusetts, where writs of assistance were first suggested, were opposed to the new plan. A young lawyer named James Otis made a famous speech in which he said that the courts did not have the right to issue writs of assistance, and that the English Parliament could not rightfully tax the American colonists without their consent. "If the king of Great Britain in person," declared Otis, "were encamped in Boston Common, at the head of twenty thousand men, with all his navy on our coast, he would not be able to execute these laws." The speech had a great effect in many of the colonies. Young John Adams, who heard the speech, said that he was so affected by it that he wanted to go out and take up arms against writs of assistance. So bitter was the feeling aroused that writs of assistance were seldom issued after Otis's speech; and on some occasions when they were issued, crowds of colonists gathered and prevented the constables from discovering the smuggled goods. It began to look as if perhaps Otis had been right when he said that the king with twenty thousand men could not enforce the law.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of all the persons mentioned in this section. Explain in a sentence or two in what connection each is mentioned.
2. Find how old Philadelphia, New York, Charleston, and Savannah were in 1763.
3. Explain how England expected to make a profit on her colonies.



JAMES OTIS SPEAKING AGAINST WRITS OF ASSISTANCE

From a painting in the Massachusetts State House

4. Tell what smuggling is and how the colonies justified it. Is smuggling practiced today?

5. Explain why John Adams should want to take up arms against the writs of assistance.

2. HOW ENGLAND TREATED HER COLONIES AFTER 1763

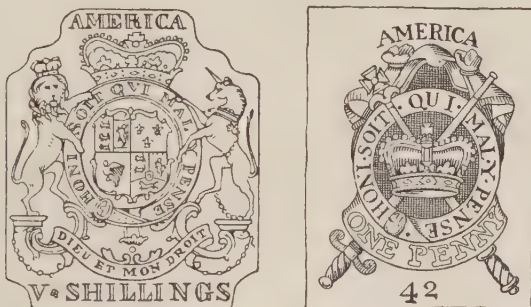
George III and Grenville. The king in 1763 was George III, who had lately come to the throne. He was a young man, poorly educated, narrow-minded, and sure that he was right in everything that he did. He made George Grenville his "prime minister," or right-hand man, in Parliament. King George and George Grenville made *three important decisions* relating (1) to navigation acts, (2) to an army in America, and (3) to a stamp act.

1. *The Navigation Laws.* The first decision was to raise the import taxes and to tax more goods. Moreover, the new law was to be strictly enforced, smuggling was to be stopped, and British war vessels were to help the tax-collectors to perform their duties. *The colonial merchants were opposed to the plan, for it would cut down their business.* Many of them, therefore, continued their smuggling.

2. *An Army in America.* The second decision was to have an army of ten thousand English soldiers in America. Grenville declared that the troops were necessary to protect the Americans against the French and Indians, but the colonists feared that the real purpose was to prevent any American opposition to English laws and to help collect the import taxes. Besides, it seemed strange that the troops had not been sent over earlier, when the French and Indians had been really dangerous, instead of now, when they had been defeated. The expense of keeping soldiers in America was to be met partly by the increased import duties, partly by having the colonists provide barracks or other quarters for the troops to live in, and partly by England.

3. *The Stamp Act.* The third decision of George III and Grenville was about the Stamp Act. In 1764 it was announced that a new American tax called the Stamp Act might be passed by Parliament. Grenville's argument for this new tax was that the debt of England had greatly increased during the French and Indian War and that the colonies ought to help pay it.

It was true that England's debts had increased, but so had the debts of all the American colonies. According to Grenville's plan the colonies would pay their own debts and also



STAMPS USED AT THE TIME OF THE STAMP ACT

help England to pay hers. As soon as the possibility of a stamp act was announced in America there was a chorus of protests. Written petitions were sent to England against it, but they were not heeded. "We might as well have hindered the sun's setting," said Franklin, when he saw that Parliament would not listen to colonial complaints. In 1765 the act was passed. It said that stamps must be placed on all newspapers and legal documents, and on papers concerning the sale of goods or property. Officers were to be appointed to sell the stamps in the different colonies, and the income from the sale was to be used for colonial purposes. The cost of the stamps varied from a penny to fifty dollars, according to the importance of the document on which they were to be placed.

Opposition in the Colonies to the Stamp Act. For a short time after the passage of the Stamp Act little was said about it, but the calm was the stillness before the storm. The legislature of Virginia was in session, and one of the members, named Patrick Henry, suggested that the legislature condemn



AN ARTIST'S IDEA OF HOW PATRICK HENRY APPEARED WHEN SPEAKING
AGAINST THE STAMP ACT

the Stamp Act and express its opinion that Virginia could not be taxed except by her own representatives. Many of the members were not ready to protest so vigorously as Henry wished, and a hot debate resulted. Henry was a fiery orator, and at length he burst out into a speech which used to be committed to memory by every American boy and girl. In it he said: "Cæsar¹ had his Brutus; Charles the First, his

¹ Cæsar was a Roman ruler who was killed by Brutus. Charles I was a tyrannical ruler in England who was defeated by Cromwell in a civil war, tried on various charges and found guilty, and put to death in 1649.

Cromwell; and George the Third ["Treason!" shouted the Speaker¹; "Treason, treason!" echoed from every part of the House] *may profit by their example*. If *this* be treason, make the most of it."

When the list of officers who were to sell the stamps was published in Massachusetts, crowds rushed to the houses of these officials, smashed their windows, and compelled them to resign. When it came time for the law to go into effect and the stamps to be sold, nobody would sell them and nobody would buy them. The Stamp Act was a dead letter from the start.

So great was the disturbance that Americans imported only half as much from England the year after the act was passed as they had before. Thousands of English workmen were thrown out of their jobs. The English merchants began at once to complain that the Stamp Act cut down their business, and they joined with the colonists in asking to have it changed.²

At the suggestion of Massachusetts a Stamp Act Congress met at New York in 1765 which was attended by delegates from nine of the colonies. The congress protested against

¹ "Speaker" is the title usually given to the man who acts as chairman of a legislative assembly. It is he who calls the meeting to order, asks the members what business they have to suggest, and decides what member shall have the chance to talk first or at any other time. A young man named Thomas Jefferson was standing in the doorway when Henry made his speech, and it made an impression on him that he never forgot. Since Henry's speech was not written out, our knowledge of it depends entirely on the memory of people who happened to be present. In 1919 or 1920 a diary was found in France which had been kept by a French traveler in America in 1764 and 1765. The Frenchman was present when Henry made his speech, and according to him only the Speaker cried "Treason," and Henry said that he was sorry if he had said more than he ought to. But the account of the speech which has always been believed and memorized is the one given in the text. Henry's protest was read everywhere in the colonies, and "No taxation without representation" became a popular cry.

² While the Stamp Act was being passed in Parliament, one of the members, Colonel Isaac Barré, called the colonists "sons of liberty." The name was taken up in America, and groups called Sons of Liberty were organized in many places. Several towns were named after Barré. The few friends of America in Parliament were generally considered very able men.



the Stamp Act and declared that the colonies could not be taxed by anybody except their own colonial legislatures.

Repeal of the Stamp Act. In the face of so much opposition, both in America and in England, Parliament gave way. It repealed the Stamp Act in 1766, but at the same time it declared its opinion that Parliament had the right to pass any laws that it pleased about America. The news of the repeal was received in the colonies with great joy: bells were rung, cannon were fired, and feasts were given. In New York a whole ox was roasted at an outdoor celebration, and in several places statues were planned in honor of Englishmen who had favored America.¹ In New York City a lead statue of George III was erected, the people wrongly supposing that the king was favorable to the repeal of the Stamp Act. The Stamp Act quarrel was important at this point in American history for several reasons:

1. It aroused dislike of England in America and set people to talking about their rights.

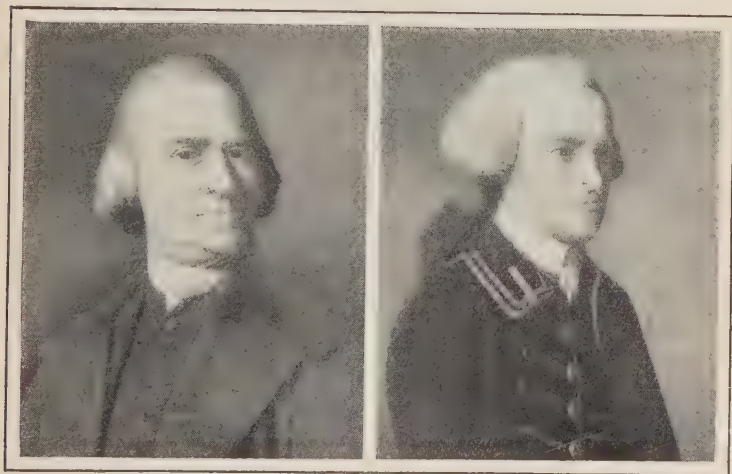
2. It resulted in the Stamp Act Congress, which showed the colonists how to get together in case of danger.

3. It showed the colonists that they were powerful enough to force Parliament to withdraw a taxation law.

The Townshend Act, 1767. The uproar caused by the Stamp Act had hardly quieted down before news came to America of a new taxation scheme. Grenville was out of power, but a new officer of George III, Charles Townshend, thought the colonists would not object to paying taxes on glass, paper, tea, and colors used in making paint. The money raised thus was to be used to pay the salaries of the governors and judges in the colonies. If the governors and judges got their salaries from England instead of from the colonial legislatures, they would pay less attention to what the colonists wanted.

¹ An Englishman much liked in the colonies was William Pitt, who declared in Parliament that he was glad America resisted.

The House of Representatives in Massachusetts sent to the king a complaint, or protest, written by Samuel Adams. A letter was also sent to the other colonial legislatures, telling what had been done by Massachusetts. The English government ordered the colony to take back its protest, and the legislature refused. Meetings were held in counties and towns all over the colonies, and everywhere the people sympathized with Massachusetts. Then it was suggested that the



SAMUEL ADAMS

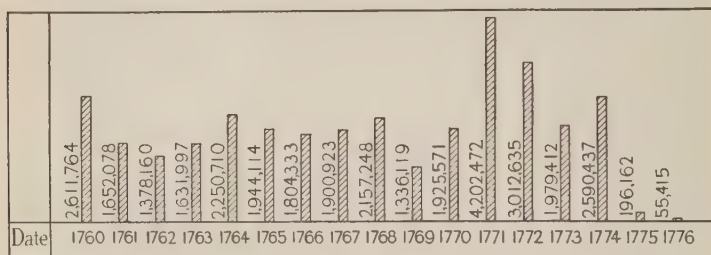
JOHN HANCOCK

American leaders should be sent to England for trial, and this aroused further anger. In September, 1768, some English troops under General Gage were sent to Boston because the tax-collectors were unable to make the people pay their import duties.

The colonists were now thoroughly aroused. The Virginians, who were led by George Mason, George Washington, and Thomas Jefferson, agreed not to buy any goods that were taxed by Parliament in order to raise money in America. Other colonies did the same; and when merchants imported

taxed goods, committees of colonists compelled them to send the goods back. Hence, in 1770 the Townshend duties, like the stamp duties, were all repealed except the tax on tea.

The Boston Massacre, 1770. The troops which had been sent to Boston under Gage in 1768 were not liked by the people, but no serious quarrel had resulted. In the spring of 1770, however, some boys pelted a soldier with snowballs. Other soldiers were called out; a crowd collected; a soldier was hit by a club; and at last some of the troops fired and killed four people, besides wounding others.¹ Boston was in



VALUE OF IMPORTS FROM GREAT BRITAIN IN POUNDS

Note how the imports went down in 1766, up in 1768, down in 1769, up again in 1771, and down in 1775. Explain these ups and downs

an uproar. A big town meeting was called under the direction of Samuel Adams and John Hancock, and the removal of the troops was demanded. In less than two weeks they were sent to a small fort in Boston Harbor. The Boston Massacre, as this event was called, showed what was sure to result from keeping English troops in American towns.

Committees of Correspondence and the Tax on Tea. In 1772, at the suggestion of Samuel Adams, the Boston town meeting appointed a "Committee of Correspondence" to exchange letters with people of other towns of the colonies about Eng-

¹ Two American lawyers, John Adams and Josiah Quincy, defended the British soldiers when they were tried for their part in the Boston Massacre. All were declared "not guilty" except two, who were punished by being branded in the hand with a hot iron.

land's treatment of America. During the next year Patrick Henry, Thomas Jefferson, and some other Virginia leaders influenced their legislature to appoint a committee for the entire colony. This committee planned to correspond with similar committees in other colonies. By such means, people all over America would be thinking and writing about the same things.



THE BOSTON MASSACRE

From "The Eve of the Revolution," one of The Chronicles of America Photoplays.
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King George soon gave the Committees of Correspondence something to write about. It concerned the tax on tea, the last of the Townshend taxes to remain in force. Most of the tea that came to America was handled by the East India Company. Arrangements were made by which the Company could sell its product at a lower price in the colonies than people had to pay in England, but at the same time the tax of threepence a pound was to be paid at the American ports.

The plan looked like a good one. Tea would be offered to the colonists at such a low price that they would be tempted to buy it in spite of their agreement not to use any of the taxed goods.

Agents were appointed in the colonies to handle the tea, and several shiploads of it were sent over to Charleston,



THE BOSTON TEA PARTY

From "The Eve of the Revolution," one of The Chronicles of America Photoplays.
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Philadelphia, New York, and Boston. In Charleston the agents of the company resigned, and as nobody came to get the tea from the ships it was stored in a cellar. In Philadelphia the people had a great meeting and agreed that anybody who used the tea was an enemy to his country. The Philadelphia agent of the company resigned. Then the agent in New York resigned, and the chests of tea were sent back to England without landing at all.

The Boston Tea Party, 1773. More serious things happened at Boston. In that town, under the leadership of Samuel Adams, the people were kept informed about the king's plan to tempt the colonists to pay the tea tax. A great meeting was held in the Old South Church at which it was voted that the tea ought to be sent back to England. But this was not so easily done. The agents of the East India Company would not resign, and the officers of the port would not allow the ships to go out of the harbor until the cargo was delivered.

At last on the evening of December 16, 1773, a party of fifty or sixty men disguised as Indians went on board the ship, broke open the tea chests, and poured their contents into the harbor. In this way three hundred and forty-two chests of tea valued at about \$70,000 were destroyed.

The "Intolerable Acts." The king, his prime minister, and most of the members of Parliament thought that Boston ought to be punished for the destruction of the tea. Several laws were passed which were intended to make Boston repent. Two of these "Intolerable Acts," as they were called, were most important:

1. There was the Boston Port Act, which closed Boston Harbor to ships going either in or out. This was a serious matter, for it prevented food supplies from coming into the town. But instead of making the people of Boston sorry for the "tea party," it had the opposite effect. They appealed to the other colonies for aid. South Carolina sent rice; Virginia sent money, corn, wheat, and bread; Philadelphia sent a thousand barrels of flour; and Israel Putnam drove up a flock of sheep from Connecticut. The people of the American colonies were beginning to be united.¹

¹ The people of Virginia took the Boston Port Act almost as seriously as if it were directed against them. The day when the act was to go into effect, June 1, 1774, was set apart by the Virginians as a day of fasting and prayer. George Mason had his five oldest children go to church in mourning. Washington went to church and fasted all day.

2. The second of the Intolerable Acts took away from the people of Massachusetts most of their self-government and forbade town meetings to be held except when permitted by the governor.

More troops under General Gage were sent to Boston, and cannon were placed in position. James Otis had said, thirteen years before, that the king himself and twenty thousand men could not force the colonists to pay taxes against their will. Perhaps he was nearer right than he seemed to be; for Gage already had five thousand men and some ships of war, but he had accomplished little or nothing. It began to look as if one side or the other would have to give in if war were to be prevented.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Show how the ill-feeling between England and the colonies gradually increased after 1763.

2. Make a list of all the persons mentioned in this section. Explain in a sentence or two in what connection each is mentioned.

3. Explain the origin of the expressions "taxation without representation" and "sons of liberty."

4. Show that King George III and Parliament were influenced more by the shipowners and merchants in England than by the desires of the colonists.

5. Why did George III desire the tax on tea to remain in force?

6. Show that the Intolerable Acts were well named.

7. In the history of our country since 1789, stamps have more than once been required on wills, deeds, and bank checks, and duties have been collected on goods coming into the country. Show why many colonists objected to such taxes before 1789, but paid them without protest afterwards. Collect some canceled revenue stamps and place them in your notebook.

8. Read "The Boston Tea Party," in Henrietta E. Marshall's *Story of the United States*, chap. li; "Causes of the Revolutionary

War," in Marie L. Herdman's *Story of the United States*, chap. xxvi; and "King George and the Colonies," in L. B. Evans's *America First*, pp. 139-144.

3. HOW THE COLONIES BEGAN TO UNITE

The First Continental Congress. It soon became clear that the other colonies did not intend to let Massachusetts stand alone in her opposition to the Intolerable Acts. Virginia suggested that men from all the colonies should meet to discuss American affairs. Massachusetts suggested Philadelphia as the place for the meeting and September, 1774, as the time. Thus was called a meeting known in American history as the First Continental Congress. Forty-five members were appointed, representing all the colonies except Georgia. Among the forty-five were many of the most able men in the country.

The results of the Congress were three in number:

1. The leading men of the colonies became acquainted with one another.

2. A protest was drawn up against the objectionable laws passed between 1764 and 1774.

3. It was agreed that the colonies would not buy any goods from England or send goods to England until the objectionable laws were repealed.¹

War Spirit in Massachusetts and Virginia. While the Continental Congress was meeting, the leaders in Massachusetts became convinced that they might have to fight England sooner or later. The towns were asked to collect arms and ammunition, to have their militia well trained, and to have ready a number of "minute men" (soldiers who could be called upon at a minute's notice). Some of the other colonies made the same preparations. As month after month went

¹ Committees were later appointed in all the towns and counties to see that nobody broke this agreement. All forms of extravagance were frowned upon. Even a dance which a lady in North Carolina planned to give in her own house was objected to by the committee on the ground of expense.

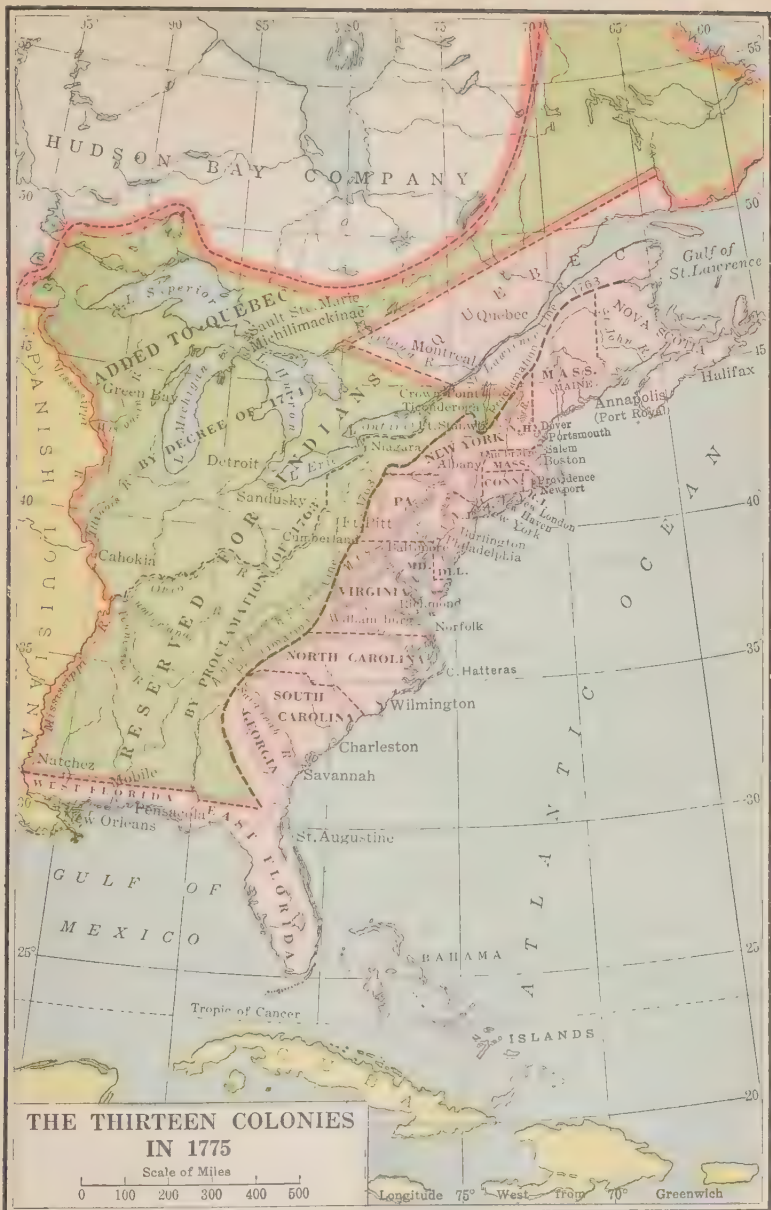
by, it became more and more apparent that England would not repeal the objectionable laws. It began to look as if there might be a war with England.¹ In Virginia, Patrick Henry took the lead in urging the colony to prepare for possible war. The speech made by Henry on March 23, 1775, was one of the most famous in early American history. After giving reasons why America must be ready to fight, he said :

Gentlemen may cry peace, peace, but there is no peace. The war is actually begun. The next gale that sweeps from the north will bring to our ears the clash of resounding arms. Our brethren are already in the field. Why stand we here idle? What is it that gentlemen wish? What would they have? Is life so dear, or peace so sweet, as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? Forbid it, Almighty God! I know not what course others may take, but as for me, give me liberty, or give me death!

Lexington and Concord. It was at this time that General Gage decided to send a force of British soldiers out to Concord, eighteen miles from Boston, to destroy some powder which the colonists had collected and to arrest John Hancock and Samuel Adams, two of the leading Massachusetts patriots. They were to set out during the night of April 18-19, 1775. As they were about to start, however, the secret of the expedition leaked out, and the patriots sent William Dawes and Paul Revere on ahead to warn the people. Church bells were rung and guns were fired. At daybreak the British troops entered Lexington and came upon a band of fifty or sixty minute men drawn up on an open square or green. Shots were fired, and eight Americans were killed.

The British then marched on to Concord, where a small battle occurred and a few on each side were killed. The British destroyed what supplies they could find, but could not catch Hancock and Adams, and started back toward Boston.

¹ One of the great speeches delivered in Parliament urging peace with America was made by Edmund Burke. It has always been considered an excellent statement of the American side, and is still read in schools for its arguments and good style.



Then came the most interesting part of the Lexington-Concord story. Out from every farmhouse swarmed the angry Massachusetts patriots. They hid behind trees and rocks, behind stone walls and bushes, and poured a rain of bullets on the retreating British. At last the English soldiers staggered back into Boston, dusty and breathless, having



THE MINUTE MEN GATHERING IN LEXINGTON

From "The Eve of the Revolution," one of The Chronicles of America Photoplays.
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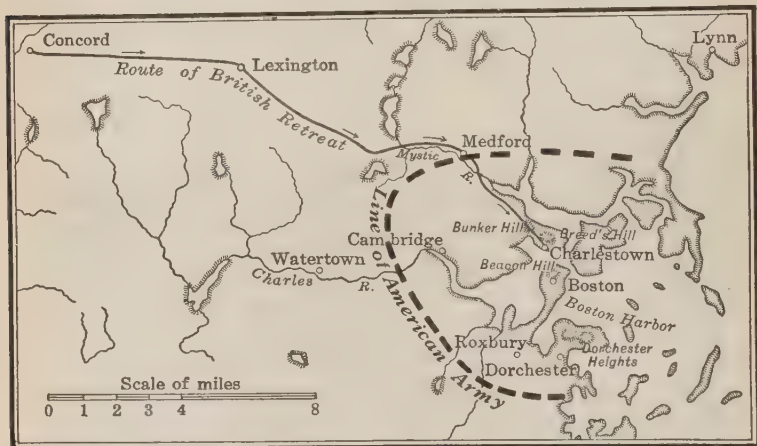
lost two hundred and seventy-three in killed, wounded, and missing. The patriots had lost only about one third as many.

The news from Lexington and Concord went out over the country. Minute men hurried to Boston. In a short time twenty thousand Americans had Gage hemmed in, and the besieger was now the besieged.

While men on horseback were going south and west with the story of bloodshed in Massachusetts, the Second Conti-

mental Congress was gathering in Philadelphia. This was in May, 1775. When it met, it decided to take charge of the troops around Boston and to appoint George Washington as commander.¹ It had also to raise money and find supplies to carry on a war.

The Battle of Bunker Hill, June 17, 1775. Gage now found himself in a risky situation. He was surrounded by a large



BOSTON AND VICINITY

force which might occupy some of the hills around Boston, fire down upon him, and make it impossible for him to stay in the city. In fact, that was exactly what the Americans were planning to do on the night of June 16–17. Just across the mouth of the Charles River were two low hills, Bunker Hill toward the west and Breed's Hill toward the east. Colonel Prescott led some soldiers to the top of Breed's Hill and threw up a "redoubt," or wall, of earth and stones, about six feet high.

¹ Washington was a member of the Congress and was very much surprised when he was asked to take charge of the army. *He told the members that he did not feel competent to do the work, but would do his best. He refused to take any salary.*

In the morning the British decided to drive the Americans off the hilltop. They were marched by their commander, General Howe, straight up the hill toward the American wall. The Americans were told by their officers to wait until the British were so near that the whites of their eyes could be seen. As soon as the enemy were at this distance the Americans poured a volley at the bright "redcoats." The British



BUNKER HILL, AS IT APPEARS TODAY FROM AN AIRPLANE

were mowed down like hay and retreated out of range. A second charge was made, and a third, and then the American fire died out. The ammunition was gone. The Americans retreated over Bunker Hill to safety, and the British took the top of Breed's Hill. But the English losses were heavy, about one thousand men to the American loss of four hundred and fifty.¹ The American general, Nathanael Greene, said, "I wish we could sell them another hill at the same price."

¹ A loss to the American side was General Joseph Warren. Warren was a physician who had taken great interest in the quarrel with England. He was appointed a general on June 14, 1775, and was killed three days later at Bunker Hill.

The battle of Bunker Hill had two important results for the American cause :

1. It convinced many people that peace could not be made with England.

2. It showed the Americans that they could fight successfully against British regular troops.

Driving the British Troops out of Boston. When Washington reached the American forces just outside Boston, he found an armed mob rather than an army. He immediately set to work to teach it how to drill and how to fight. Neither officers nor men knew much about real war. Several officers had been cowardly at Bunker Hill, two were drawing more pay than they had a right to, and one had been away from his post of duty when the enemy came. All these had to be punished, and in the meanwhile Washington trained the men in the art of fighting. There were difficulties in the way ; but the men were ready and able to learn, and Washington soon had an army instead of a mob.

Fortunately some ammunition and cannon came to the American forces during the winter after the battle of Bunker Hill. During the spring of 1775 Ethan Allen, of Vermont, had captured some English ammunition at Ticonderoga and Crown Point, on Lake Champlain. The following winter, while the snow was on the ground, the much-needed supplies were brought to Boston on sleds. A large quantity of powder, muskets, and bullets were also obtained on an English vessel which was captured north of Boston.

Thus the spring of 1776¹ found Washington with a fairly well-drilled army and sufficient supplies of ammunition. As

¹ In 1775-1776 two expeditions were sent into Canada in the hope that the Canadians might revolt against England and join the colonies. One expedition, under Richard Montgomery, went by Lake Champlain to Montreal ; the other, under Benedict Arnold, went through Maine toward Quebec. Both expeditions were unsuccessful. The American army had to fight not only the British forces but also cold, hunger, and smallpox.

early as possible (March 4, 1776) he put up "redoubts" on the hills of Dorchester from which to fire his cannon upon the British in Boston. The British were already in distress. They could not get enough fuel and food into the city because they were prevented by Washington's army. To attack Dorchester Heights would be to repeat the attack on Bunker Hill, and that cost too many men. Accordingly, on March 17,



FORT TICONDEROGA, OVERLOOKING LAKE CHAMPLAIN, AS IT APPEARS TODAY

1776, the British commander, Sir William Howe, sailed away with his army, carrying about one thousand Americans who favored the British side of the dispute. After March 17 the city of Boston saw no more of English soldiers and English rule.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of the events in this section that helped to unite the colonies. Show how each made for unity.
2. Show how the people of Virginia could learn about what occurred at Lexington and Concord.

3. Search the three books mentioned on pages 172–173 for accounts of the events that were described in the discussion of how the colonies began to unite.

4. Does it not seem strange that a thousand people should have left their homes in Boston to go with Howe? Account for such an act.

5. List all the persons and places mentioned in the section. Locate the places. How many of the persons have been mentioned before?

6. Do you think the English government could have prevented war in 1775? Give reasons for “yes” or “no.”

4. HOW THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE WAS MADE

Ought the Colonies to separate from England? While the battles of Lexington and Concord were being fought, Bunker Hill defended, and Boston occupied, the people all over the colonies were discussing important questions. “Ought the colonies to say definitely that they intend to separate from England?” “Ought they to declare that they will fight if necessary for the power to make all their own laws without interference by king or Parliament?”

Different men answered these questions in different ways. Most people were opposed to separation, a few were in favor of it, and between the two there was a large group who were doubtful. Several things helped the doubtful to make up their minds:

1. The more the people thought about the killing of Americans in Massachusetts by British soldiers, the more they felt that they could not remain English colonists.

2. When the king heard of the battle of Bunker Hill he declared that the Americans were “rebels,” Parliament passed a law shutting up all American seaports, and under the direction of the king’s governor in Virginia the port of Norfolk was burned to the ground.

3. During the winter of 1775–1776 a pamphlet called *Common Sense* was published by Thomas Paine. The pamphlet

A flag carried by a company of
Virginia minute men in 1775
and later

A flag supposed to have been
carried by John Paul Jones in
1775. The mottoes were favor-
ites in the colonies, and perhaps
were added after 1775

The flag used by General George
Washington at Cambridge in
1776. "It marked the real be-
ginning of our national existence
and continued to be the flag of
the Revolution until the Conti-
nental Congress adopted the
Stars and Stripes"

The flag adopted by Congress
on June 14, 1777



EARLY AMERICAN FLAGS

argued that it was time to stop debating about separation from England and take up arms.

4. In colony after colony the people became so angry with the king's governor that they drove him out. The people then had to set up a government of their own, or else have no government at all. Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and South



DRAFTING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

An artist's conception of the committee of Congress discussing the subject

Carolina led in making this change. When the new government was set up in Massachusetts, a printed proclamation was issued urging obedience to the new officers. The proclamation ended with "God save the people" instead of "God save the King," as such proclamations had formerly done.

5. In the spring of 1776 news came to America that England had hired twenty thousand Hessian troops to be used in

forcing obedience to the acts of the king and Parliament. This convinced many that Americans must get together and fight for their rights.

Passing the Declaration of Independence. While all this was going on, the Second Continental Congress, still in session in



IN INDEPENDENCE HALL, JULY 4, 1776

Congress has just adopted the Declaration of Independence. From "The Declaration of Independence," one of The Chronicles of America Photoplays. Copyright. By permission, Yale University Press

Philadelphia, was hearing from the different colonies. North Carolina, Virginia, and others sent word to their delegates to declare the colonies independent. Finally Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, a member of Congress, suggested two things:

1. A declaration that the colonies were independent of England.

2. A new form of government under which the colonies would be united in a group and make their own laws. The

first of Lee's proposals was referred to a committee on which were Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, and Benjamin Franklin. On July 4, 1776,¹ Congress accepted a Declaration of Independence which Jefferson had drawn up with some help from the other two men.

What the Declaration of Independence Contained and Meant. The Declaration of Independence contained a long list of things which the king had done, such as sending troops to America, stopping American trade, and levying taxes without the consent of the people. Jefferson believed that these were good reasons for taking up arms against England. He therefore wrote the following into the Declaration :

That these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be, Free and Independent States; that they are Absolved from all Allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved.

As soon as copies of the Declaration were printed, they were sent out broadcast and read to crowds everywhere. Bells were rung, bonfires were made, and in New York the lead statue of George III was pulled down and made into bullets.

Hereafter the thirteen colonies were no longer to be dependent on Great Britain. They were now *states*, not *colonies*: *colonies belong to some other nation; states govern themselves.*

The Declaration of Independence was so important in the history of the United States that it has generally been looked upon as marking the birthday of the Union :

1. Since it resulted from the united action of the people all over the country, it indicated that the colonies were becoming interested in a common cause.

¹ Although the Declaration was adopted on July 4, it was not signed by the members of Congress until August 2, but July 4 has always been celebrated as the date of American independence. The Declaration was read on July 8 to the people of Philadelphia. A diary kept by a man in New Jersey in 1778 tells of celebrating July 4 as early as that year.

2. Since the Declaration cut the colonies loose from England, they must either go ahead and win their independence by war or be beaten and forced to submit to England. The Revolutionary War, or the War for Independence, was fairly begun.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. The best list of the causes of the war with England is found in the Declaration of Independence. Turn to this document in Appendix A and count the separate causes listed by Jefferson. Make a list of those that you have read about in this book. Underline in red the three that you think offer the best reasons for the Declaration.

2. The account on page 183 might lead you to believe that everybody was happy over the passing of the Declaration. Name some officers and other groups that were sad rather than happy.

3. List the signers of the Declaration whom you have met in previous sections of this book or in your general reading (see the list of signers in Appendix A). Tell in a few words anything that you have read about them. Which ones later became presidents of the United States?

4. Tell the story of the drafting and signing of the Declaration of Independence.

5. Show that the colonies were revolting against the English government rather than against the English people.

6. Show how the English victory over the French in 1763 hastened the struggle for independence.

7. Trace the movement toward union among the colonies. List the steps in the order of their occurrence. Begin with the New England Confederation in 1643.

8. Make two lists of the causes of the war. In one list place the remote causes and in the other the immediate causes.

9. Read "The Signers of the Declaration of Independence," by Mary V. Worstell, in *The Colonists and the Revolution* (edited by C. L. Barstow), pp. 157-178. You will find a picture of each of the signers here.



EXTERIOR AND INTERIOR VIEWS OF INDEPENDENCE HALL, IN PHILADELPHIA, THE LATTER
SHOWING THE LIBERTY BELL

UNIT II. THE WAR FOR INDEPENDENCE

As the war came on, it seemed as if the advantages were in England's favor. She had the money necessary to finance the war, she had trained soldiers and able leaders, she had powder, guns and cannon of good quality, and she had plenty of ships for carrying her soldiers. Of course, not all the advantages were on one side. The colonists knew the country in which the fighting was to occur, they were more interested in the war than were the British soldiers and the hired Hessians, and they had in George Washington a better leader than any English officer.

1. WHAT WAS THE COURSE OF THE WAR IN NEW YORK AND NEW JERSEY?

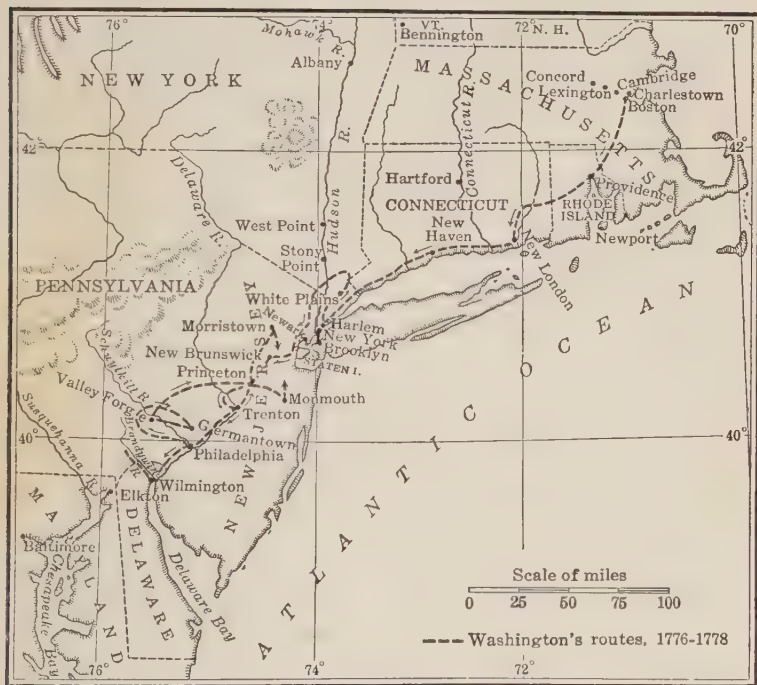
The Transfer of the War to New York. After the British left Boston, New England saw little more of the Revolution. Except for one or two small encounters, and except for the fact that men were frequently leaving villages and farms for Washington's army, New England was unharmed by the war.

Early in the summer of 1776 the English landed thirty thousand Hessians and British on Staten Island, in New York Harbor, ten thousand more than James Otis had talked about. They were trained, professional fighting men. A great fleet of seven hundred ships brought troops and supplies of food and ammunition, and gave England command of the sea. The expedition was led by two brothers, Admiral Lord Richard Howe and General Sir William Howe.¹ The Americans had practically no navy whatever; and as for soldiers,

¹ General William Howe was the soldier who led the twenty-four men up the cliff at Quebec (see pages 97-98). Both the Howes, strange to say, were opposed to making war on the Americans. General Howe, in fact, said that he would not take troops to America if asked, but later agreed to on the ground that he could not refuse to obey the king's orders. They both were more ready to make peace than to start war.

Washington had but eighteen thousand men, who were only partly trained and poorly armed.

The Battle of Long Island. The British had taken so long in getting their forces to New York that Washington was prepared for them. Part of his army was sent across from New



THE WAR IN NEW YORK AND NEW JERSEY

York to Long Island, under Generals Sullivan and Putnam, to fortify Brooklyn Heights. Having so great an army and fleet, Howe was easily able to send large forces across the narrow channel between Staten Island and Long Island. General Howe had been in the battle of Bunker Hill, and he did not intend to march his forces again straight up a hill in the face of American soldiers. He therefore sent two bodies

of men directly toward the Americans as if to fight it out as he had done at Bunker Hill. He himself, with other troops, went around the right of the Americans to the rear, and captured the guard that had been sent to protect the road. The result was disastrous to the Americans. Two important officers were captured, one thousand five hundred men were lost, and the whole army was placed in great danger.¹

If the Howes should move against Washington with their great fleet and enormous army, they could pen him up on Long Island and destroy his whole force. In the face of such difficulty Washington acted quickly. During the night of August 29-30 he took his entire army with all its supplies across from Long Island to New York City in small boats. Part of the British army was only six hundred yards away, but not a move did Howe make until morning, and then it was too late.

But Washington was not safe in New York. The city is on an island, and hence Admiral Howe could send ships along both sides and land troops wherever he wished. Washington saw that the most important thing for him to do was to keep his army together, whether it won victories or not. If he should fight a great battle in the open field, his army might be completely captured, and American independence would be lost. Hence he retreated northward to Harlem, where a small battle was fought; then, still farther north and across the river into New Jersey, while Howe captured Forts Washington and Lee on the two sides of the Hudson River.²

¹ Men who understand warfare blame Washington for dividing his army in this way. They also blame Howe for not following up his victory and capturing the whole American army. It is not surprising that Washington made mistakes, but he learned quickly and never made a fatal mistake.

² Desiring to get information about the movements of the British, Washington sent Nathan Hale, who volunteered to go into New York. Hale was captured and hanged as a spy. Just before he died he said, "I only regret that I have but one life to give for my country." So many have admired his courage in the face of death that it is impossible to judge how many men have given their lives to the country through the inspiration of Hale's words.

The British settled down in New York to stay, and Washington's army began to fall to pieces. Many of the soldiers became discouraged, and so many of them left for home that Washington again urged Congress to give him more men. Moreover, General Charles Lee, who was second in command under Washington, disobeyed orders and was finally captured.¹

The Retreat across New Jersey and the Capture of Trenton. Washington then slowly retreated across New Jersey, followed by Howe. Washington's little army was so small and Howe's so large that the people of New Jersey became discouraged. Money for buying supplies and paying the men was so scarce that Robert Morris² went from house to house in Philadelphia collecting contributions in order to keep the army alive. The people of Philadelphia feared that the enemy would attack the city, and many of them tried to get out with their furniture and baggage. At last Washington got across the Delaware River, taking with him all the boats that he could find. By now he had only four thousand men. Winter was coming on, and the soldiers suffered constantly from cold and from lack of clothing and shelter.

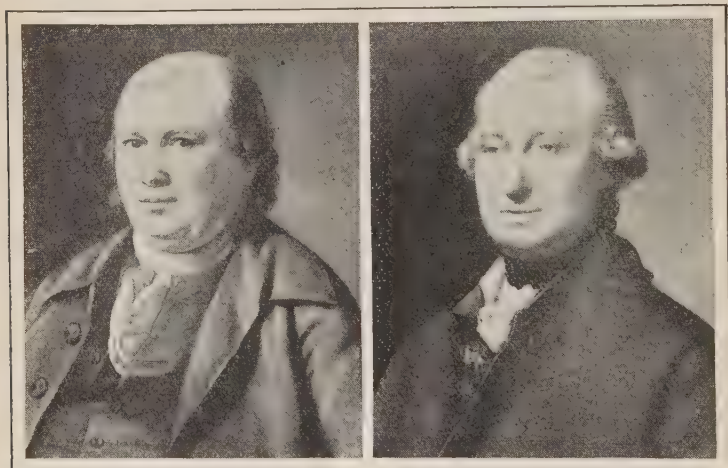
Howe, unable to get across the river because he did not have boats enough, remained on the bank of the Delaware opposite General Washington, and had his headquarters at Trenton. The British were so sure of being able to capture the American leader that Howe publicly offered his protec-

¹ General Lee was an English officer who had asked to be allowed to serve in the American army. He had had experience as a soldier in Europe and hoped that Washington would fail, so that he could succeed to the most prominent position. He was so talkative and so boastful, as compared with the quiet, modest Washington, that many people took him at his own estimate and believed that he was a very great hero.

² Robert Morris was a great help in carrying on the war, although he was not in the army. He was a Philadelphia merchant who conducted a valuable business during the early part of the war. When it looked as if the British might capture Philadelphia, Congress appointed Morris and two others to look after some of the affairs of the government. The other two went home, leaving Morris alone. Thereupon he borrowed money, bought supplies for Washington's army, and "kept the practical work of the government alive almost under Howe's nose."

tion to all who would leave the American side and go over to the British. Nearly three thousand people accepted the chance! It was at this dark moment that Washington struck a famous blow.

General Howe himself had gone back to New York to celebrate Christmas. The troops at Trenton were mainly Hessians, and they too were paying more attention to the



ROBERT MORRIS (AT THE LEFT) AND LORD CORNWALLIS, THE LEADER OF THE BRITISH ARMIES IN THE SOUTH (AT THE RIGHT)

celebration of the holiday than to attending to their duties. On Christmas night there was a storm of sleet, under cover of which Washington planned to have three bodies of troops cross the river and fall on the enemy. Only Washington with his men had the courage to undertake the adventure — the other two bodies of soldiers gave up the attempt. Once across the river, Washington marched nine miles through the storm and rushed into Trenton. The Hessians were completely surprised, and one thousand of them were taken prisoners. This was on December 26, 1776.

The new turn of affairs put heart into the Americans, and fresh troops began to come in. On the English side General Cornwallis was sent from New York, post haste, down into New Jersey with reinforcements.

The Battle of Princeton, January 3, 1777. It was the intention of Cornwallis to catch the "old fox," as he termed Washington, but again the American leader did the unexpected. On the night of January 2, 1777, he left a small force in camp to keep the fires burning brightly and to keep up a sound as if the whole army were in its usual position. Then, with the greater part of his men, Washington slipped around in back of Cornwallis, defeated him, and escaped to some high land at Morristown where it would be difficult to follow. Years afterwards Cornwallis told Washington that nothing could surpass the skill with which the American army was led in New Jersey.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Reread this section until you can tell a straightforward story of the war in New York and New Jersey. Practice the story aloud to yourself or tell it to a schoolmate or to your father or mother.

2. What does the footnote on page 186 indicate about the feeling of some Englishmen concerning the war?

3. Become acquainted with the persons mentioned in this section by listing them. Test your knowledge of each as you read over your list.

4. Would Washington resent being called an "old fox"? Give reasons for your answer.

5. Show how the experiences of the colonies in the French and Indian War helped them in the Revolution.

6. Did the American people stand by Washington all through the Revolution? How do you explain your answer?

7. Read "Capturing the Hessians," in L. B. Evans's *America First*, pp. 169-172, and "The Darkest Hour — Trenton and Princeton," in H. E. Marshall's *Story of the United States*, chap. lvi.

2. WHAT THE BRITISH ATTEMPTED IN THEIR CAMPAIGN OF 1777

The British Threefold Plan. While the Americans were in camp at Morristown and the English in camp at New York, plans were made for a great British advance in three places.

1. St. Leger planned to land at Oswego, on Lake Ontario, make his way through the forests of northern New York, capture Fort Stanwix, and go along the Mohawk River to Albany.

2. General Howe was to go up the Hudson valley and meet St. Leger at Albany.

3. General Burgoyne was to march from Canada along the shores of Lake Champlain, and then across the Hudson River at Albany.

By this threefold plan the American states would be cut in two and might be made to give up the war. How did each of these plans work out?

St. Leger and Howe. St. Leger started out from Oswego in the summer of 1777, according to the plan, but was defeated at Fort Stanwix by the settlers of the region and some soldiers under Benedict Arnold.

In the meantime Howe remained week after week in New York and did nothing. Washington, who was keeping watch, could not imagine why Howe's army did not move. At last, however, the great fleet loaded with troops sailed out of New York, and Washington saw that they were headed southward. When the English entered Chesapeake Bay a month later and landed at Elkton, in Maryland, Washington saw that they intended to capture Philadelphia, and he was there to meet them. But he was defeated at Brandywine and was unable to prevent Howe from marching into the city. Shortly afterward Washington attacked a force of British at Germantown ;

but he was again beaten, and retired to Valley Forge, near Philadelphia. Here he spent the winter, training his troops and waiting to see what Howe would do.

What happened to Burgoyne's Army? Of the three English armies that were to meet at Albany, St. Leger was defeated, and Howe spent the entire summer of 1777 in the Philadelphia campaign. What chance of success had Burgoyne without the support of St. Leger and Howe?

At first all went well with Burgoyne. He went along Lake Champlain, defeated some Americans who held Fort Ticonderoga, and started for Fort Edward, at the upper end of the Hudson. But there his troubles began. The forests were so thick that it took him twenty days to march twenty miles. At this very time Howe was starting south for Philadelphia instead of north toward Albany. And now Burgoyne found progress so slow that his army of eight thousand men was often short of supplies. Food was scarce, and for the most part came from far-away England.

Having heard that the Americans had collected some supplies of food and of ammunition at Bennington, Vermont, Burgoyne sent General Baum with five hundred men, mostly Hessians, to seize them. But the Hessians were met and defeated by some soldiers whom John Stark had hurriedly gathered together, and thus Burgoyne failed to get his supplies and lost some of his men besides.

Then more and more men poured out from the farms of New England and New York and joined the American army which had gathered to face Burgoyne, until there were more than three times as many Americans as there were British. In September and October two battles were fought near Saratoga, where the Americans were victors. General Gates was in command, but Benedict Arnold led the most important charges on the enemy. Burgoyne and his entire army surrendered on October 17, 1777. So ended the plan to have

three armies meet at Albany and to separate the American states into two parts.¹

The Winter of 1777-1778 at Valley Forge. While Burgoyne was being fought and captured, Washington was keeping his eyes on Howe at Philadelphia. His headquarters were at Valley Forge, twenty miles from the city, and there he spent the winter of 1777-1778. It was at this time that Washington and his little army had the greatest need of courage. Food was lacking, medicines for the sick could not be obtained, and shoes were so scarce that the men could often be followed by the marks of their bleeding feet on the frozen ground. At one time three thousand men had so little to wear that they could not go out on duty. There was plenty of food in the country, and clothing and shoes enough to go round; but Congress did not make proper arrangements to get the supplies to the army.²

However, there is one bright spot in the winter at Valley Forge. Some valuable assistance was given to the American cause by two young Europeans. One of these was the Marquis de Lafayette, a brave Frenchman of whom Washington was very fond; the other was Baron von Steuben, a German officer who reached Valley Forge in the spring of 1778. Steuben knew how to drill an army and could teach the soldiers how to use their weapons to best advantage. His work gave good results in later battles.

Help from France. More good fortune was just about to come to the American cause. It consisted of aid from France.

There were two reasons why France was interested in the American cause:

1. France hated England and wished to see her defeated.

¹ After the victory at Saratoga some of Washington's enemies planned to have him removed from his position and to put Gates in his place. Fortunately the attempt failed. Gates had very slight ability, as was later discovered.

² Washington's officers bravely made fun of their hardships. It is said that they even gave dinners to which nobody was invited whose clothes were whole.

2. The French were beginning to think a great deal about the tyranny of kings, and they admired a people who were fighting for liberty.

Even before Burgoyne's defeat the French had been sending over clothing, food, ammunition, and money to help the American cause.

To persuade France to ally herself with the United States in a war against England, Benjamin Franklin was sent over as a special messenger. Franklin was well known in Europe as a wise and witty man. The whole world knew how he had sent up a kite into the clouds during a thunderstorm and had proved that electricity and lightning were the same; and how he had published *Poor Richard's Almanac*, which was full of clever and wise sayings. France fell in love with Franklin's simple dress, his calm face, and his pleasant manners. Very soon every bookshop and picture store had portraits of Franklin. And then came the news of Burgoyne's defeat,¹ which proved that the Americans were making headway in their attempt to defeat England.

Thereupon the French king made two agreements, or treaties, with Franklin:

1. The first provided that France should join the United States in the fight against England.

2. By the second the United States and France agreed to trade with each other.

As soon as England heard of the alliance between France and the United States, she knew that her possessions in every part of the world might be threatened by her various enemies; in fact, Spain and Holland joined France against England not long afterwards. It was impossible, therefore, for England to send large reënforcements to the armies in America.

¹ One of the French king's officers first got word of Burgoyne's defeat. He was so pleased that he is said to have dislocated a joint in his haste to reach the king and tell the news.



WASHINGTON'S ARMY IN WINTER QUARTERS AT VALLEY FORGE

As imagined by the artist Edwin A. Abbey. Copyright by M. G. Abbey; from a Copley Print,
copyright by Curtis and Cameron, Publishers, Boston

The British Retreat from Philadelphia to New York. News of the alliance was received at Valley Forge with hurrahs. The American soldiers might well cheer. Since France was going to help the United States, she would send over a fleet. If the British remained in Philadelphia, they might be penned in between the American soldiers on the one side and the French fleet on the other ; accordingly they at once prepared to leave Philadelphia and to gather most of their forces in New York.



SIR HENRY CLINTON

GENERAL LAFAYETTE

Sir William Howe now surrendered the command to Sir Henry Clinton. Clinton decided to send his supplies around to New York by the ships and to march the soldiers overland through New Jersey. Here Washington was ready for him. Near Monmouth, June 28, 1778, he pounced on Clinton and might have defeated him completely if it had not been for the treachery of General Charles Lee.¹ As it was, Clinton succeeded in getting back to New York, and there he stayed.

¹ Lee had lately been released after having been a prisoner in the hands of the British. After his conduct at Monmouth he was arrested and finally driven out of the American army for good.

The battle of Monmouth was the last large battle in the North, for afterwards the British turned their attention to the South. A force was kept at New York, however, and Washington settled down to watch his enemy and trouble him as much as possible.

The Treason of Benedict Arnold. In 1780 occurred an event that alarmed Washington and that almost gave the English an opportunity to capture a portion of the American army.



WEST POINT AS IT APPEARS TODAY

Washington was keeping some of his men in a strong fort at West Point, on the Hudson River. The point was under the command of Benedict Arnold, who had been so brave in the battles against Burgoyne. Arnold arranged in September, 1780, to turn over West Point to the British in return for a large sum of money and a position as general in the British army. The plot was discovered, but not until Arnold had escaped to the enemy.¹

¹ Arnold served on the British side through the rest of the war. Afterwards he went to England and died there.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

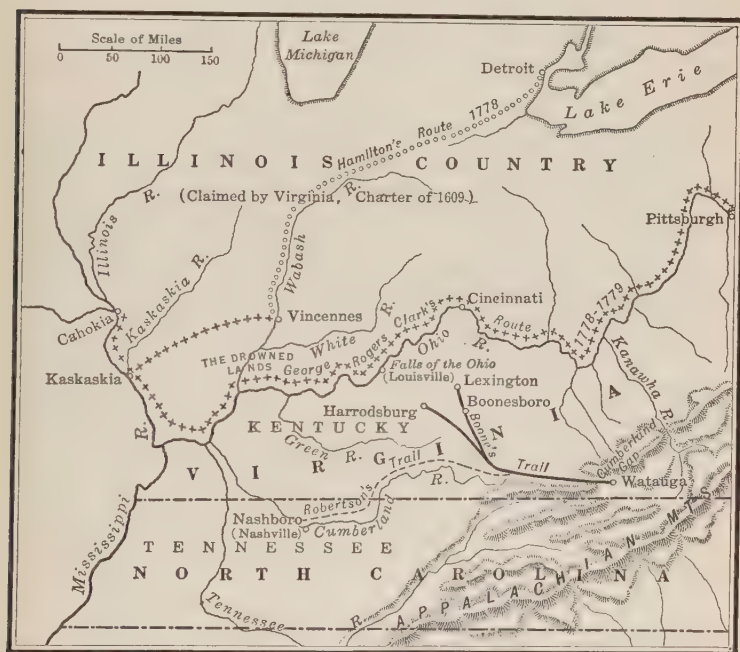
1. You have met some new persons in this section. Get acquainted with them by writing their names on slips of paper, along with some things each did or attempted.
2. You will need to make a careful study of the map on page 193 in order to get the scenes of this section well in mind.
3. Reread this section until you can tell a straightforward story of the British campaigns of 1777.
4. Show that the colonists had at the end of the year 1777 many reasons for believing that they could win the war.
5. One who commits treason is called a traitor. Find in the Constitution of the United States (Appendix B) what treason is and who fixes the punishment of a traitor.
6. Explain why Saratoga ranks among the world's decisive battles.

3. HOW THE WAR WAS FOUGHT IN THE WEST

The war for independence was by no means confined to the settled regions along the Atlantic coast. Although at the outset it was mainly the work of men within a hundred miles of the coast, before it ended, many people on the frontier, in the Appalachian region, and even in the Mississippi Valley experienced their share of its hardships. The fighting on this western frontier was between the Indians and the Tories, on the side of England, and the American backwoodsmen who had recently come into the region.

The Frontier Settlements. Between 1763 and 1775 there was a constant migration going on from the older settlements east of the Appalachian Mountains. Besides the old French settlements in the Illinois country at Kaskaskia and Vincennes and Detroit, which were in the hands of the English, there were frontier settlements at Pittsburgh, in Pennsylvania, at Harrodsburg and Boonesboro, in Kentucky, and at Nashville, in Tennessee. The danger which the frontiersmen

most feared was an Indian raid, an event which frequently occurred, especially in the Kentucky and Tennessee settlements. In their attacks on the settlers the Indians were encouraged and aided by the British. Colonel Henry Hamilton, the British commander at Detroit, was the leader in stirring



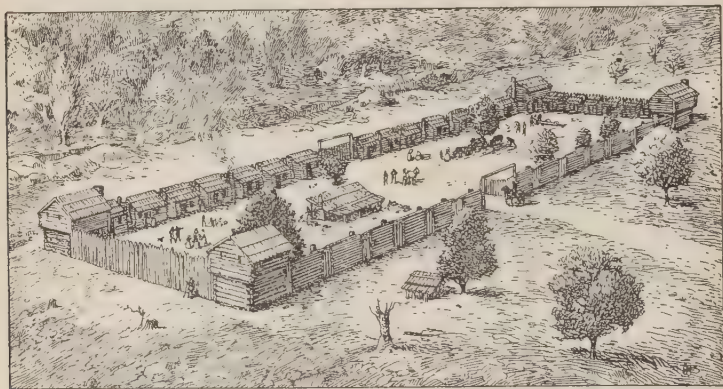
THE WAR IN THE WEST

up the Indians against the American pioneers. His encouragement went so far as to reward the Indians for American scalps which they brought in.

Clark's Expedition to the Illinois Country. In 1777 the Western pioneers made up their minds to strike at the source of their danger, the British forts in the Northwest. A brave man named George Rogers Clark was sent to Virginia to get the aid of Patrick Henry, who was the governor of that state.

Clark soon convinced Henry that the Northwest was worth protecting, and secured the necessary backing, money, and supplies for a small expedition into the Illinois country.

In the spring of 1778 Clark, with his little band of less than two hundred men, started from Pittsburgh toward the British fort on the Mississippi at Kaskaskia. They made their way down the Ohio River to an island opposite the present city of Louisville, Kentucky. There they remained



A PICTURE OF BOONESBORO, KENTUCKY, DRAWN FROM DESCRIPTIONS
OF THE FORT

for a time, drilling and making other necessary preparations. Then Clark continued down the Ohio and across southern Illinois to the old French settlement at Kaskaskia. When he arrived there he found the fort held by a few soldiers. He surprised the garrison and captured it without a fight on July 4, 1778. When he told the French of the region that their country had become an ally of the United States, they agreed to help him.

Clark's next move was to capture Cahokia and start for Vincennes, in what is now Indiana. By that time it was February, 1779, and the spring floods were already starting. Much of the one hundred and seventy miles to Vincennes was

flooded prairie, — part of it like a shallow lake, — but Clark and his men waded through. Later in the month Hamilton, commander at Vincennes, was surprised to see the American soldiers trudging forward to surround his fort. He surrendered the next day, and the frontiersmen heaved a sigh of relief when they heard that their worst enemy had been captured and had been sent to Virginia as a prisoner. The



GENERAL CLARK ON THE ROAD TO VINCENNES

From "Vincennes," one of The Chronicles of America Photoplays. Copyright. By permission, Yale University Press

conquest of the Northwest was now well begun. The territory north of the Ohio was opened up for safe settlement.

Clark's expedition was important for three reasons:

1. In the first place, many of the Indians of the region became more peaceful.

2. It checked the activities of the British among the Indians.

3. It gave the United States a claim on the great territory between the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi River.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Practice the telling of the story of the war in the West until you can recite it without the aid of the book.

2. Make a list of the new persons and places mentioned in this section. Get acquainted with the persons and familiarize yourself with the location of the places.

3. Fix in your mind an outline of the war thus far. You may need to jot this outline down on paper in order to make sure you have the events in the right order.

4. How do you feel about the war up to this point? Are the Americans going to win? Give reasons for your answer.

5. Read "George Rogers Clark and the Conquest of the Northwest," in *Hero Tales from American History*, by Theodore Roosevelt and H. C. Lodge, pp. 29-41.

4. HOW THE WAR WAS CONDUCTED IN THE SOUTH

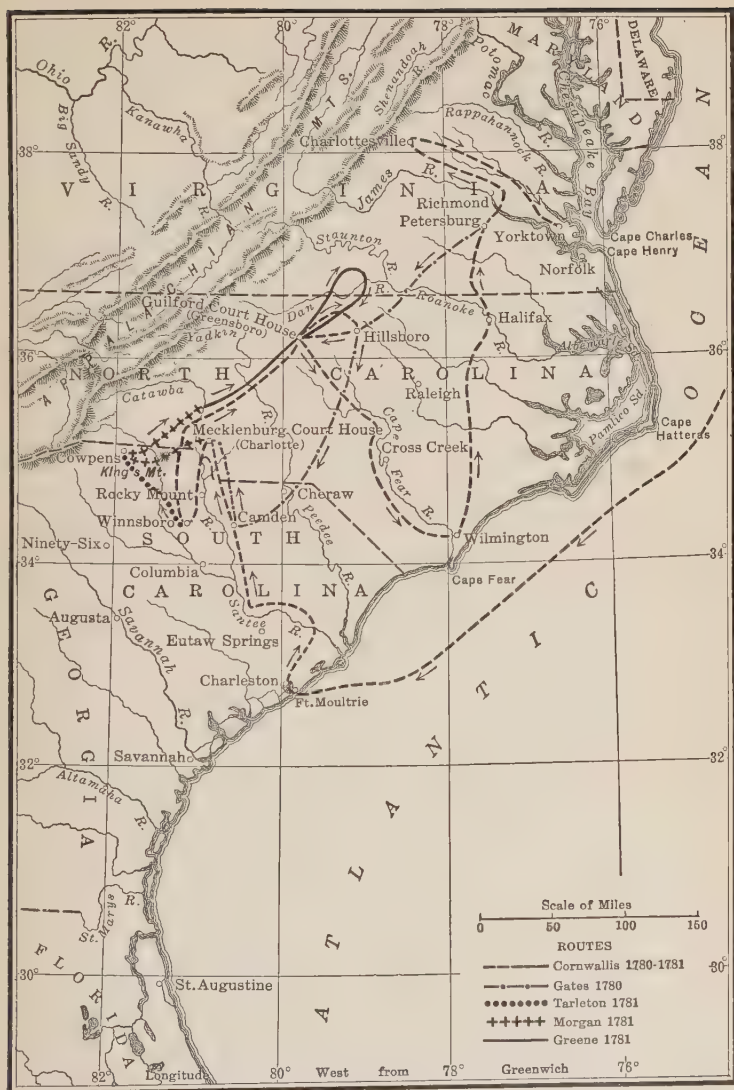
Having been driven out of Boston by Washington and having made little progress in the middle states, the British now prepared to turn their attention to the South. There were two reasons for this:

1. As already mentioned, the English had failed to end the war by conquering the North.

2. They thought that many people in the Southern states were friendly to England and would help them. It was their intention to conquer Georgia, the youngest and weakest of the states, and work up the coast, bringing the war to an end in state after state.

The Capture of Savannah and Charleston. The first part of the program was carried out easily. Savannah, in Georgia, was captured late in December, 1778, and the rest of the state was soon in British hands.

It took longer to do this, however, than it does to tell about it, and it was many months before the British began the attack on the next state, South Carolina.



THE WAR IN THE SOUTH

In order to speed up the conquest of the South, Clinton himself went down from New York by sea with General Cornwallis and seven thousand men. He landed his forces near Charleston, the chief city of South Carolina, and surrounded the town. General Lincoln, who had command of the Americans in South Carolina, was unable to fight so large a force and was compelled to surrender in May, 1780. As soon as Charleston was captured, Clinton sent out Tarleton with his cavalry. Tarleton would ride swiftly out to any place where American soldiers were to be found, surprise them (sometimes at night), capture all the men and supplies he could, and then ride back. So cruel and swift was Tarleton that South Carolina was soon as nearly helpless as Georgia was.

The Americans, however, did not give up without a struggle. Some brave Southerners — Sumter, Marion, Pickens, and others — gathered small bands of men who were expert in handling a gun. These men camped in the woods and mountains, where it was difficult to find them, and dashed out to fight wherever they could find small English forces. Sumter and his friends were never strong enough to give battle to a whole army, but they did a great deal of damage just the same. Tarleton called Marion the "old swamp fox" because he often escaped by paths across the Carolina swamps.

The Battles at Camden, King's Mountain, and the Cowpens. In order to organize the fighting against the British, Congress sent General Gates down into the Carolinas to take command. In August, 1780, Gates found Cornwallis at Camden in the northern part of South Carolina. A battle followed in which Gates was badly beaten, and he fled nearly two hundred miles before trying to get his men together again. Gates then had his command taken away from him, and General Nathanael Greene was sent down.

Before Greene could reach the scene of action an odd battle had been fought. Cornwallis had sent about one thousand

men into the edge of North Carolina to get supplies and to enlist Americans who might be willing to join the English army. Suddenly the English found themselves being surrounded by bands of men who had gathered from the farms and mountains of that region. The British took refuge on a flat-topped height called King's Mountain. The Americans crept up the sides, hiding behind trees and bushes, and killed, wounded, or captured the entire British force. Then the Americans scattered to their homes and farms. The battle of King's Mountain was more important than it seemed:

1. It showed that the Carolinas were not really conquered by the British.

2. Cornwallis was so far from reinforcements that he could not afford to lose so many men.

As soon as Greene reached the South, Cornwallis decided to make an attempt to beat the new commander as he had beaten Gates. On January 17, 1781, he came upon a part of Greene's army under command of Morgan and Pickens. The result was another defeat, in which the British lost nine hundred men.¹

Retreat of Cornwallis to Yorktown, Virginia, and his Surrender on October 19, 1781. In a short time Cornwallis met Greene at Guilford Court House, in North Carolina, and defeated him, but could not capture the whole army. Then Cornwallis decided to march northward into Virginia and do what damage he could there. Benedict Arnold (now in British service) was already in Virginia, and he combined with Cornwallis in the attempt to conquer the state. Tarleton was sent out to break

¹ Morgan drew up his men in three lines, one back of another. The first line was told to fire when the army of the enemy was fifty yards away and then to fall back to the second line. The second line was to fire twice and then fall back to the third line. When the first two lines fell back in this way, the British thought that the Americans were retreating, and they came on pell-mell. Then the third line held firmly. Pickens suddenly darted out from one side with his horsemen, and the British found themselves being surrounded. Six hundred of them threw down their arms and surrendered.

up the Virginia legislature, which was at Charlottesville. He was successful in his attempt and almost captured the governor of Virginia, Thomas Jefferson.

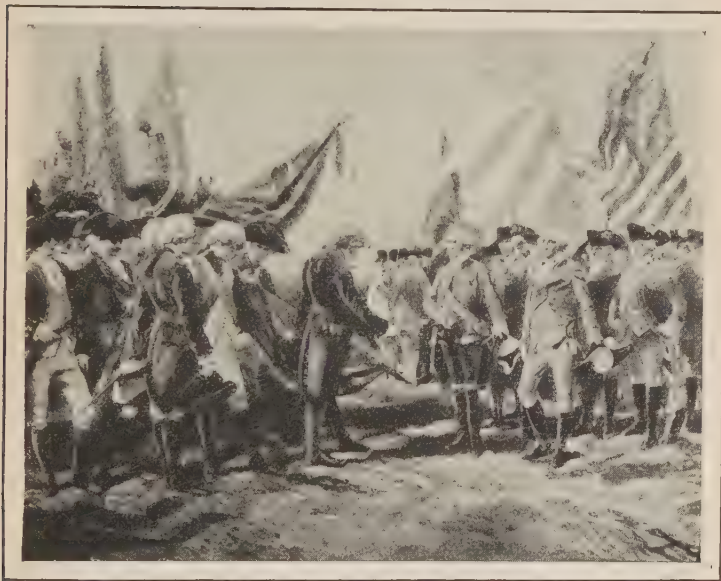
It was now two years and a half since the British had captured Savannah, and still the South was not conquered. As trees bend in a gale, but rise as soon as the wind dies down, so the South seemed to give way to the British, but was ready to assert itself again as soon as the backs of the soldiers were turned.

Sir George Clinton, who had gone back to New York, now ordered Cornwallis to go to some seaport in Virginia, fortify it, and wait for reënforcements by water. Cornwallis chose Yorktown, a place on the York River not far from the site of the first English colony at Jamestown. There Cornwallis stationed his army, placed cannon where they would command the river, and threw up fortifications. Lafayette, who had been sent into Virginia by Washington, drew up some troops in front of Yorktown, and for a short time quiet reigned.

Then occurred one of the most interesting things in all American history. Washington had with him near New York, besides his own troops, a French army under Rochambeau; and in the middle of the summer of 1781 he heard two bits of news: he heard (1) that Cornwallis had fortified himself at Yorktown and (2) that a French fleet had set sail for Chesapeake Bay and could be made useful in preventing reënforcements from getting to Cornwallis by sea. He promptly started the French and American troops on the march to the South.¹ When they reached Chesapeake Bay he sent most of the men to Yorktown by boat. While part of Washington's army was on the way, the French fleet reached the entrance to the bay, and there met and defeated the English fleet.

¹ Some of the soldiers marched every step of the way to Yorktown. The brother-in-law of Lafayette walked seven hundred and fifty-six miles from Newport, Rhode Island, to Yorktown to take part in the battle. It was worth the pains.

When Washington's troops at last reached Yorktown and shut off any escape by land, Cornwallis found himself in a trap. The French fleet penned him in on the water side, and the French and American soldiers surrounded him on the land side. There was no hope of securing quick reënforcements.



THE SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS AT YORKTOWN AS IMAGINED BY AN ARTIST

On October 19, 1781, Cornwallis surrendered, marching his defeated army out between two lines of French and American troops. The surrender of Yorktown was the real end of the war. Several more battles were fought here and there, however, and it was not until 1783 that the last of the British left America.¹ Not until then did Washington resign his position and return to his home at Mount Vernon.

¹ A few British soldiers remained in some forts in the West until 1796. About their removal see page 259, note 1.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. There are some new names in this section. You had better make a list of them and fix definitely in your mind what each man did.

2. You are now through the story of the war. It has been told in four sections. Reread this section until you can tell it without the aid of your book. You now know the entire story. Tell it to yourself or to some classmate in one continuous account.

3. Now that the war is over make a list of the most important reasons for the success of the Americans.

4. Do you think the British people and generals were sorry to have the war end as it did? Give reasons for your answer.

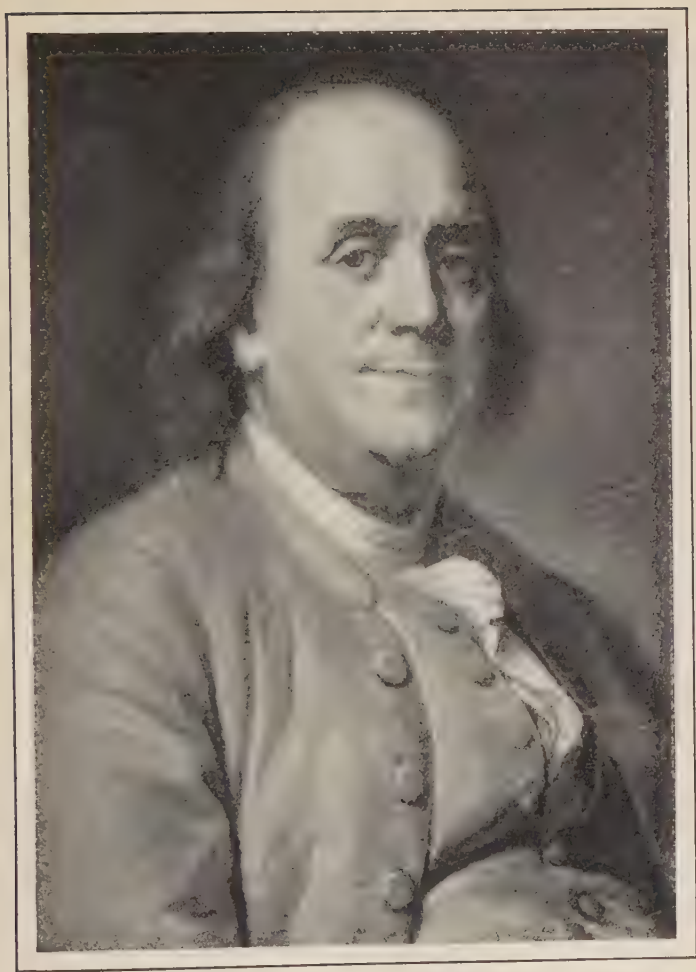
5. The footnote on page 208 says that Lafayette's brother-in-law walked seven hundred and fifty-six miles to be present at the battle of Yorktown. Should you have been willing to do that? Why?

6. Seek additional information on the war in the South from the books in the Day-by-Day Reference Library on pages 154-155. There is a good account of the battle of King's Mountain in *Hero Tales from American History*, by Theodore Roosevelt and H. C. Lodge, pp. 71-78.

5. SOME SPECIAL ASPECTS OF THE WAR

What did the Navy Do? The United States had scarcely any navy during the Revolution as compared with that of Great Britain. The most famous American commander was John Paul Jones, whose ship, the *Bon Homme Richard*, fought the English *Serapis* in 1779 off the coast of England and beat her. The United States also commissioned about two thousand private vessels to arm themselves and to do what damage they could to English ships. John Barry, an Irish immigrant, was placed in command of the *Lexington*, as early as 1776, and made so many captures that he was offered a large sum of money to desert his adopted country. He refused the offer.

The Work of those who were not in Military Service. The soldiers generally get the credit for winning wars; yet it must be



A PORTRAIT OF BENJAMIN FRANKLIN
From a picture painted at the time

remembered that the work of those not in actual military service is sometimes of equal importance. Patrick Henry, Samuel Adams, and others aroused the people to fight for their independence. Jefferson's Declaration of Independence showed the people just what they were fighting for. John Adams and John Jay did important work in getting proper laws passed, and helped to draw up the treaty which closed the war. Robert Morris was the most important financial officer. Morris was of English birth, but he migrated to this country and became a rich Philadelphia merchant. It was to Morris that Washington turned when he was in greatest need of money. During the campaign in New Jersey, Morris raised money by pleading with his friends and neighbors. Later, in 1781, he was Superintendent of Finance of the United States.

On the other side of the Atlantic during the war, Benjamin Franklin was most valuable. It was Franklin who gained the confidence of the French, who obtained money and supplies, and who, more than anybody else, influenced France to take sides with the United States against Great Britain. Month after month Franklin wrote, urged, and argued in behalf of the American cause, and at last he was successful. At the close of the war Franklin aided John Jay and John Adams in making the peace treaty.

Women during the Revolution. Books almost never tell the share that women take in a war, and yet their share is always important. Women, particularly those near the battlefields during the Revolution, made bandages for the wounded, tearing up tablecloths, clothing, towels, and anything else that would serve. Frequently the sick or wounded or exhausted soldiers were taken care of in private houses, and of course the work all fell on the women. Abigail Adams, wife of John Adams, wrote to her husband about her share during the days just before the battle of Bunker Hill: "Soldiers coming in for a lodging, for breakfast, for supper, for a drink, etc.

Sometimes refugees from Boston, tired and fatigued, seek an asylum for a day, a night, a week. You can hardly imagine how we live."

The task of the housekeeper during the war was unusually hard. Frequently the father of the family, and perhaps the sons, were away on military duty; then the work of the farm fell on the women and children. Prices went higher and higher, and made it more and more difficult for the mother of a family to get proper food and clothing for herself and the children. In any city such as Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Charleston, and Savannah a bombardment or attack always brought suffering for the women and children. If they did not hurry out of the town, taking whatever valuables they could, they had to undergo the danger of cannon shot and burning buildings. When Boston was being held by the British, for example, there was danger every minute of the day and night. That same Mrs. Adams tells also how disease spread, how children and old people fell sick, and how many of her neighbors died because of the epidemics. Sometimes alarms were given in the night (as was done just before Lexington and Concord), and the men leaped out of bed, seized their muskets, and went hurriedly away. Their families might or might not ever see them alive again.



ABIGAIL ADAMS, WIFE OF THE PATRIOT
LEADER JOHN ADAMS

An able woman who wrote excellent descriptions of life in Boston early in the Revolution

Perhaps the greatest hardship which the women of the Revolution had to undergo was the constant fear that something would happen to themselves and their families. Mrs. Adams wrote :

I went to bed about twelve, and rose again a little after one. I could no more sleep than if I had been in the engagement ; the rattling of the windows, the jar of the house, the continual roar of twenty-four pounders, and the bursting of shells, give us such ideas, and realize a scene to us of which we could form scarcely any conception. The cannon continued firing, and my heart beat pace with them all night.

Some Europeans who Helped. Many European soldiers became interested in the American war and wished to come over to take part in it. Unfortunately they generally wanted to be officers, not private soldiers, and hundreds of them besought Franklin and other Americans in Europe for appointments. Some of these men were a nuisance to Washington ; a few, however, were of great service.

Pulaski and Kosciuszko were from Poland. De Kalb, a German by birth who had become a general in the French army, was killed at the battle of Camden, after having been wounded thirteen times. Baron von Steuben was a German who had served under Frederick the Great of Prussia, one of the greatest military leaders ever known. Steuben became chief drillmaster of the American army and worked out the system which the United States used during the Revolution and afterwards. The last official letter which Washington wrote in 1783 was to Steuben, thanking him for his services. Lafayette has always been the most popular foreigner who fought on the American side. He belonged to one of the leading families of France, but he left home, family, and fortune to help the United States against the enemy of France.¹

¹ It is an odd fact that many of the Hessian soldiers hired by the English deserted and remained in America. Many who were captured settled in the United States after the war and never returned to Europe.

Washington's Part in the War. The military success of the Revolution was, of course, won by the whole army. The lowest private who suffered at Valley Forge and trudged all the way from New York to Yorktown did his share. The officers, such as Nathanael Greene and many others whose names might be mentioned, cannot be forgotten in summing up the resistance to Great Britain. But the greatest leader of all was George Washington.

Few generals have had to command an army that was so constantly changing. The army was large when victories were being won; but after defeat it sometimes dwindled so fast in a week or a month that Washington feared that it might disappear altogether. However, no matter who might prove traitor, or get discouraged, or give up, Washington never despaired. Others thought that they themselves could do his work better, and his enemies attempted to remove him; but Washington never let these things alter his determination to stick to his task.

At times he had difficulty in arousing Congress and the people to the necessity of supporting the army. He had to plead with Congress and prod it to make it act, but he never on that account refused to do his part of the work, and more.

Washington's one great idea was to keep an army in the field, no matter how small the army was or how difficult it was to keep resistance alive. When success came his one desire was to go back home to Mount Vernon to see his horses and dogs, to till his plantation, and to live with his family.

The "Loyalists" and the War. A "Loyalist," or "tory," in 1776 was one who chose to remain "loyal" to the king rather than join the cause of the thirteen colonies. It has been estimated that probably one third of the people of the thirteen colonies remained faithful to the king and opposed the war from the beginning. In some parts of the country they were in the majority. This was especially true in New York,

Philadelphia, and South Carolina, and in some parts of Connecticut, Massachusetts, and other states.

The Loyalist party was made up of people from all walks of life. Everywhere the officers of the crown and all who were connected with the crown's business in the colonies were stout supporters of the king. The majority of the Episcopal clergy remained "loyal." Besides these general classes there were many individuals who sincerely believed that separation from Great Britain was a bad thing for America. There were many also who thought that England was sure to win and who wished to be on the winning side.

The patriots, of course, hated the Loyalists bitterly. Washington called them "detestable parricides" and "abominable pests" of society. The treatment they received at the hands of the patriots was sometimes very severe. In the early stages of the war they were compelled to give up their allegiance to the king. More violent punishments, however, were later inflicted. Some of the more radical Loyalists were driven from their homes, tarred and feathered, and even hanged. Their property was seized in many of the states. In New York alone \$3,600,000 came into possession of the state in this way. To escape the anger of the patriots many of the Loyalists left the country, to make their homes in England or in other British colonies, especially Canada. When General Howe was forced out of Boston, about one thousand Loyalists even joined the British army and fought on his side. All told, perhaps fifty thousand colonists deserted the American cause. Three regiments of them were in the British service.

Financing the War. An important part of any war is the money to pay the enormous bills. Soldiers must be paid, arms and ammunition must be purchased or manufactured, and food and clothing for the army are always in demand. When the war broke out, the colonies had none of these, nor did they have the money with which to buy them.

There are three principal ways of getting money for the government: (1) taxing the people, (2) borrowing, and (3) issuing paper money. The Continental Congress tried all three of these methods, relying primarily on the last. Between 1775 and 1779 over \$241,000,000 of "continental paper money," as it was called, was issued. In addition to this amount, the states issued more than \$200,000,000 of their own paper money. In fact, so much was printed that it finally became almost valueless. If people wished to say that something was worthless, they said that it was "not worth a continental," meaning that it was not worth a piece of continental paper money.

Inasmuch as the Continental Congress had no power to *force* the states to pay taxes, but could only *ask* each state to give money, very little money could be raised in this way. The remaining source — borrowing — was resorted to in 1776 and later. In all, about \$8,000,000 was raised by borrowing at home and abroad, the foreign loans being chiefly from France.

Industry during the War. The war did not hurt industry as much as one might expect. This was partly due to the fact that most people were farmers and went on planting their crops and reaping their harvests each year as if there were no war. The shipbuilding and carrying trade of New England was damaged, and the manufacturing industry was badly upset at the beginning of the war. Many of the wealthy people were Loyalists and refused to put money into making guns, camp equipment, and so on. After a while, however, ways were found for reviving the modest manufacturing industries.

Except in the neighborhoods where armies were actually fighting, agriculture went on as it did before the war. After the first few months New England was left alone and was as peaceful as ever. Much damage was done by the armies in New Jersey, Virginia, and farther south; but as soon as

the fighting was over, farming went on as before. Enough food was being grown and enough clothing being made so that the army at Valley Forge could have been properly fed and clothed. The trouble was that there was no way to get the supplies together and carry them to the place where they were needed.

The Treaty of Peace, 1783. Cornwallis surrendered in 1781, and fighting soon came to an end; but it took two years for England and the United States to agree on a peace treaty. At last, in 1783, Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, and John Jay succeeded in getting the king's officers to consent to the following :

1. The United States to be independent of Great Britain, and to be bounded on the north by Canada, on the west by the Mississippi River, and on the south by Florida.
2. The British army and fleet to leave the United States.
3. American fishermen to have the right to fish off the coasts of Canada and Newfoundland.

In return for these valuable concessions the United States agreed to the following :

1. That Congress would ask the states to let the Loyalists return and get back their property.
2. That British vessels, as well as American vessels, should have the right to sail up and down the Mississippi River.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of the persons or groups of persons who helped to win the war in ways other than as soldiers or generals. State briefly how each one on your list helped.

2. A civil war is one in which groups of people of the same country are fighting each other. Show in a three-minute floor talk in what respects the Revolutionary War was a civil war.

3. Show how it was possible for the industries of the colonies to be but slightly affected by the war.

4. Trace on a map the boundaries of the United States as fixed in 1783. Name the organized states at this date.

5. Talk for three minutes to the class on how the people who remained at home helped to win the war.

6. Write in your notebook a list of incidents and events which show the greatness of Washington as a military leader.

7. Conduct a "round-table" on books and stories dealing with the Revolutionary War. Let each member of the class advertise one or more books that he has used and learned to know since beginning Division Four.

UNIT III. THE CONFEDERATION AND THE CONSTITUTION

No years in times of peace are more important in American history than those from 1783 to 1789. In 1783 the people had just won their independence from England. Would they go ahead and form a government and one great nation? Or would they form several small nations, as the people of Central and South America have done? The way in which the people answered these questions has affected American history ever since.

1. WHAT WERE THE ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION AND HOW DID THEY WORK?

The Central Government during the War. There was no "United States" before the Revolution. Each of the thirteen colonies took care of itself and had no connection with the other colonies. During the war the colonies had to unite in order to fight the enemy. The Second Continental Congress happened to be meeting at Philadelphia when the war broke out. It was the only gathering in which there were people from all the colonies. It therefore took charge of the war, asked Washington to be commander in chief of the army, and raised the necessary money (see page 176). There was no time

to stop and discuss whether Congress had the right to do all these different things.

Since the duties and powers of the Continental Congress were not set down on paper, a committee was appointed in 1775 to draw up a constitution which should tell how the United States should be governed. The resulting plan was called the Articles of Confederation, and it was accepted by Congress. It was then sent to all the states to see whether they would agree to it. All of them did so except Maryland; and Maryland refused, for a very important reason.

Maryland said that many of the states — New York and Virginia, for example — claimed to own lands in the West as far as the Mississippi River. Maryland had no such claim; hence Maryland complained that if all the states should go into a union called the United States, then the big states, such as New York and Virginia, would have more power than the little states, such as Maryland. Thereupon New York and the other states with claims to Western land said that they would give their claims to the United States as a whole. Maryland then agreed to this arrangement, and in 1781 the Articles of Confederation were accepted by everybody. The most important points in the Articles were the following :

1. The name of the country should be the United States of America.
2. The country should be governed by a congress in which every state should be represented.
3. Laws should be passed when agreed to by nine out of the thirteen states represented in Congress.
4. No change could be made in the Articles unless all the states wanted it.

The Chief Defects of the Articles of Confederation. The Articles of Confederation did not work as well as had been hoped. They had two outstanding defects :

1. The first was that Congress could not raise money to pay its bills. Under the provisions of the Articles, Congress *requested* the states to contribute a certain amount of money to keep the government going. Some of the states paid as much as they were asked to pay, some paid a small fraction, and some paid nothing at all. Congress could not *compel* the states to pay if they did not wish to.

2. The second defect was that each state could pass tariff laws as it pleased. For example, goods coming from England and being brought up a river between two states might be landed free on one bank but have to pay a big tax on the other. The different states were continually quarreling over this matter.

Bad Political and Economic Conditions. The defects of the Articles were made worse by bad conditions in the country just after the Revolution. For one thing, it was very hard to get around in the country because the roads were so poor. A Frenchman in 1788 told about traveling fifty-six miles in central Massachusetts between four in the morning and bedtime, a distance which can now be easily done in less than two hours. If traveling was so hard in Massachusetts, where the roads were better than in most places, what must have been the conditions elsewhere?

Another difficulty in the way of government was that the states were all suspicious of one another. Today, when we are so accustomed to having a patriotic feeling both for our state and for the United States, it is hard to realize the feelings of the people just after the Revolution. They had not long been accustomed to the United States. When Benjamin Franklin spoke of his "country," he meant Pennsylvania, the state in which he lived. Furthermore, people in one state looked on people in the other states as inferiors. Connecticut, New York, and New Jersey were quarreling with one another constantly. New Yorkers thought that people in Connecti-

cut were crafty and dishonest. Marylanders and Virginians were jealous of one another.

Another source of trouble was the lack of a good monetary system. English money was used in some parts of the country and Spanish money in others. A great deal of paper money was used which varied in value from state to state and was not worth much anywhere.¹ Because of the various kinds of money it was difficult even to make change when one man sold goods to another.

Foreign trade was also in a bad condition for several years after the Revolution. Some industries, such as the Southern rice culture, had been injured by the war. England, France, and Spain closed their colonies in the West Indies to trade with the United States. Hence the United States found herself shut off from some of her most profitable markets, and great distress resulted. The United States was producing plenty of tobacco, lumber, and food for export, however, and in a short time a little trade opened with the Netherlands and other northern-European countries. It was at this time also that American ships began to go to China, especially from Boston and Salem.

Such conditions as these, of course, created unrest. People were discontented all over the United States, particularly in Massachusetts. Many people were deeply in debt, and they found it hard to pay their bills because money was scarce. The debtors were frequently put into prison. Finally, under the leadership of Daniel Shays, the people of central Massachusetts seized arms, broke open the jails, and let the debtors out. Only with difficulty was this rebellion stopped.

Good Conditions in the Country. However, not everything was bad in the United States after the Revolution. In the

¹ Paper money was so nearly worthless that a barber in Philadelphia papered his shop with it. Flour at one time cost \$1575 a barrel, and Samuel Adams bought a hat and a suit of clothes which cost \$2000.

first place, there was a population of about 3,250,000 people, most of whom spoke the English language and for the most part had the same customs and the same ideas of government.¹ Furthermore, the United States had plenty of natural resources, such as fertile land, timber, minerals, water power, and fur-bearing and food animals. There was so much good land everywhere, especially in the West, that anybody who was discontented or unsuccessful could move away and begin life over again somewhere else. In European countries, where land was extremely scarce, discontent like that existing in the United States after the Revolution was likely to result in civil war.

Some Wise Laws. During these years of gloom and distress Congress was not entirely inactive. One of its laws, passed in 1785, was especially wise. The plan of the law was to divide the lands north of the Ohio River and west of the Appalachian Mountains into squares, or "townships," six miles on a side. Every township was to be divided into thirty-six "sections," each section being a square mile, or six hundred and forty acres, in size.

The land was then to be sold very cheaply to anybody who would settle on it. One section in every township was to be reserved for keeping up the schools; for example, the land might be sold and the money used for education.

Buyers promptly appeared for the new land. The first and chief of these was the Ohio Company. It was a group composed mainly of veterans of the Revolution who wished to make homes for themselves in the West. The Company made arrangements for the purchase of 1,500,000 acres in what is now Ohio, at the rate of two thirds of a dollar an acre.

Congress then passed the so-called Northwest Ordinance of 1787. It related to the vast stretch of land which now

¹ For example, most Americans believed in good schools and in freedom of religion and opposed kings and monarchical governments.

makes up the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin. The ordinance had four important provisions:

1. The Northwest was to be formed into states having self-government exactly like Massachusetts or Virginia as soon as the population was great enough.
2. Education was to be encouraged.
3. People were not to be molested on account of religion.
4. Slavery was not to be allowed.

Until the population was sufficient, the Northwest was to be governed by officers sent out by Congress.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Show to what extent the Articles of Confederation were responsible for the bad political and economic conditions in the country between 1783 and 1789.

2. Account for the fact that paper money is sometimes worthless and sometimes as good as gold.

3. Give a three-minute floor talk on the topic "The Importance of the Articles of Confederation."

4. Read "The Days of Weakness and Confusion" and "Keeping the Union Together," in Eva March Tappan's *Story of the Constitution*, chaps. i, ii.

2. HOW THE CONSTITUTION WAS MADE AND ADOPTED

Fortunately for the country it happened that there were a number of men in the United States who saw both the weakness and the strength of the country. They saw that the government ought to be strong enough to collect taxes and to pay its bills. They saw that a better monetary system was needed. They feared that such disorders as the Shays Rebellion might spread. They saw that foreign trade ought to be encouraged. Foremost among these men were James Madison, a young Virginian, and Alexander Hamilton, a young

man who had been born in the West Indies and had moved to New York just before the Revolution. Other men saw as clearly as Hamilton and Madison that something ought to be done ; but how could a start be made ?

The Annapolis Convention. A dispute had arisen between Maryland and Virginia about their rights on the Potomac River, which runs between the two states. It was suggested that a convention be held of delegates from all the states. The meeting was to be at Annapolis in 1786. Only a few states bothered to appoint delegates, and only a few persons attended, but among them were Madison and Hamilton. These two got the convention to propose a meeting of delegates from all the states at Philadelphia in 1787 to see if the Articles of Confederation could be revised so as to be more useful. With the exception of Rhode Island all the states were willing to make the attempt, and they appointed delegates to attend the meeting.

The Constitutional Convention, May–September, 1787. The Constitutional Convention, which met in Philadelphia from May to September, 1787, was the most important meeting ever held in America.

It is surprising to note the names of some of the Revolutionary leaders who were not present — Samuel Adams and John Hancock from Massachusetts, and Patrick Henry and Thomas Jefferson (who was in France on business) from Virginia. It is noticeable, too, that no delegates representing the farming and working classes were present, although most of the people of the United States belonged to these two groups.

On the other hand, most of America's great men were there, including Washington, Franklin, Madison, and Hamilton. Most of the delegates were men of ability and education. Many were lawyers ; some had been signers of the Declaration of Independence ; some, such as Franklin and Jay, were experienced in foreign affairs. Gerry of Massachusetts and

Robert Morris of Philadelphia were prosperous merchants. All in all, it was a remarkable group of men.

As soon as enough delegates had reached Philadelphia the Convention opened, and Washington was elected president. Then the members began to draw up and talk over plans for governing the United States. It was here that the ability of the members of the Convention began to show itself. Many of them had studied thoroughly the workings of the Articles of Confederation; three fourths of them had served in Congress; practically all of them were experienced in the government of their home states.

It soon appeared, however, that the Convention was separating into two groups: the members from the large states and the members from the small states. The members from the small states feared that the big states would control the new government completely, and that the small states would have no voice at all. Hence, when the delegates from the large states suggested a plan for a new government, those from the small states opposed it and suggested one which carried out their ideas. The large-state plan gave the large states great power; the small-state plan gave the small states great power.

The Disagreement over Representation. The disagreement between the two groups came to a head over the matter of representation in Congress. Both groups agreed that the laws of the country ought to be made by a Congress, but the delegates from the large states thought that the bigger states ought to have more representatives in the Congress than the small states. This was what the small states were afraid of, and they argued for a Congress in which all the states should have the same number of members regardless of their population. The disagreement became so bitter that it looked as if the Convention might break up without doing anything, and then a happy solution of the difficulty was found.

It was suggested (1) that Congress could be made of two parts, or Houses: a House of Representatives and a Senate; (2) that the big states have more members in the House of Representatives than the small states, but that all states have the same number in the Senate. By this plan a state whose population was twice as great as that of another would have twice as many members in the House of Representatives. This satisfied the large states, and the small states were pleased with their equal representation in the Senate. There were many other disagreements and difficulties, but this was the great one. After it was settled the work of the Convention went on more smoothly; nevertheless, there were so many people to satisfy and so many small points to be considered that the Convention labored from May to September before the members could be brought to agree on the new constitution.¹

Adopting the Constitution. A new obstacle now appeared. Of the fifty-five delegates who attended the Convention, only thirty-nine were willing to sign the Constitution when it was done. The sixteen who refused to sign it returned to their home states and urged the people to oppose the new plan of government.

If the Constitution was to go into effect, nine states out of the thirteen must agree to it. For a time it looked as if nine states could not be found, so bitter was the argument almost everywhere. Many objections were made.

1. Some people thought that the new government would be too strong and might become tyrannical, like the government from which they had just revolted.

¹ As the Convention broke up, Franklin made one of his usual witty remarks. On the back of the chair which Washington occupied as president of the Convention was painted a sun peering over the horizon. Franklin remarked that he had frequently looked at this sun without being able to tell whether it was intended as a rising sun or a setting sun, but now that the work of the Convention was done successfully he was satisfied it must be a rising sun.

2. Some did not like the idea of having a central government with a capital in a distant place which would control them.

3. Some felt that the head of the new government,— the "President," as he was called in the Constitution — would become a sort of king.

On the other hand, the friends of the Constitution pointed out

1. That the United States was falling into ruin under the old Articles.

2. That no nation could live which did not have power to raise money and pay its bills.

3. That it was necessary to have a central government which could control foreign affairs and foreign trade for the whole thirteen states.

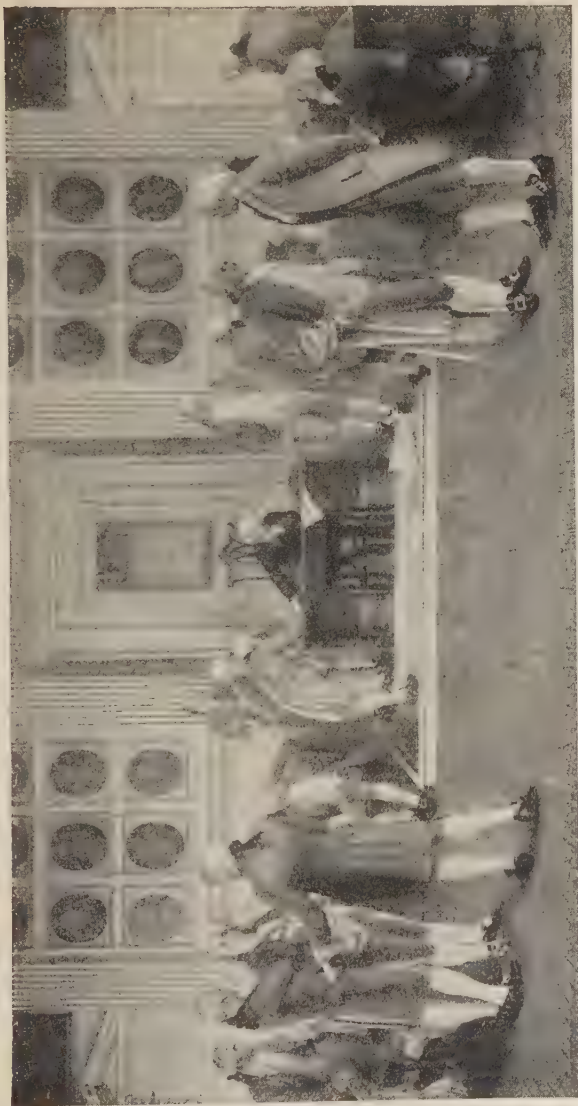
4. That the Constitution could be amended by the vote of the legislatures of three fourths of the states if at any time it did not work well.

In addition to these arguments, many people felt sure that Washington would be the first president, and they were willing to trust any government that he would have charge of. Finally, most people felt that it would be better to accept the Constitution, even though it had defects, and then remedy the defects afterwards. Eleven states agreed, but the remaining two, North Carolina and Rhode Island, refused altogether.¹ The division of the people into friends and enemies of the Constitution was the first political contest after the Revolution, the friends of the Constitution being known as the "Federalists," and its enemies as the "Anti-Federalists."

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. In the preamble of the Constitution is found a splendid statement of the ideals and objectives to which our nation is dedicated. It is worth committing to memory.

¹ North Carolina accepted the Constitution in 1789; Rhode Island, in 1790.



SIGNING THE CONSTITUTION

From a painting in the Wisconsin state capitol. (From the Delong Studios, Madison)

2. Find in the Constitution the part that indicates how it can be amended. This is Article V.

3. Look up the inscription on a half-dollar. It means "Out of many, one." Explain in what sense the expression is literally true.

4. Prepare a three-minute floor talk in support of a strong Federal government. Imagine yourself delivering this talk on the floor of the Constitutional Convention.

5. Imagine yourself a member of the Virginia convention which ratified the Constitution. Give a three-minute talk in opposition to the Constitution.

6. Read *The Story of the Constitution*, by Eva March Tappan, chaps. iii-vii.

7. Arrange the signers of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution in three lists. In one, place all those who signed both documents, in another those who signed the Declaration only, and in a third those who signed the Constitution only. Do you know of any reasons why some signed the Declaration but not the Constitution?

3. WHAT IS THE NATURE OF THE CONSTITUTION?

How did the Constitution improve on the Articles? The Constitution answered the main objections which had been made to the Articles of Confederation (see page 221).

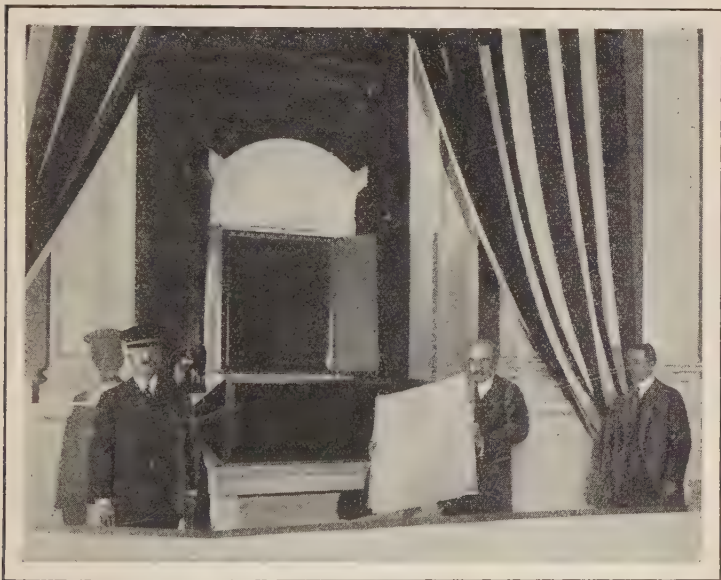
Under the Constitution, Congress is allowed to raise money from the people and compel them to pay the amounts that the law demands.

Under the Constitution, Congress has power to coin money and to print paper money. No state is allowed to do this. Soon after the Constitution was adopted, English money went out of use, and the present system of dollars and cents was put into effect.

Under the Constitution, Congress has the sole power of passing laws about foreign trade. No state can pass tariff laws, and the result is that tariffs are the same for all parts of the country.

The Important Parts of the Constitution. The new Constitution — the "new roof," as it was popularly called at the time — had several other important parts:

Congress is composed of two bodies, or Houses: the Senate and the House of Representatives. The Senate has but two



ENSHRINING THE CONSTITUTION AND THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

Herbert Putnam, Librarian of Congress, holding the original manuscripts of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States, which he is about to place in the shrine in the Congressional Library. (Copyright by Underwood and Underwood)

members from each state. The states send larger or smaller numbers to the House of Representatives, according to the population. For example, in the meeting of Congress which began in 1927, five states (namely, Arizona, Delaware, Nevada, New Mexico, and Wyoming) had only one representative each, and New York had forty-three. New York City alone had twenty-one.

Congress passes laws affecting the whole United States. An example of such a law would be one providing that any person bringing goods into any part of the United States shall pay a tax to the government.

The chief officer of the United States is the president, who is elected by the people for a term of four years.¹ It is his duty to see that the laws which Congress passes are carried out. If he thinks a law which Congress passes is unwise, he "vetoes" it; that is, he refuses to let it go into effect.²

Sometimes after a law goes into effect, there is serious disagreement as to whether Congress had the right to pass it or not. Sometimes there is disagreement, also, as to just what the law means. These questions are settled by the Supreme Court, which is now composed of nine members, all of whom are expert lawyers. The Supreme Court hears cases in a room in the Capitol at Washington.

The Constitution can be changed by amendment when the legislatures of three fourths of the states agree.

The Constitution is the *supreme law of the land*. No state has the right to do anything that is forbidden by it. For example, no state can make a treaty with a foreign nation or keep any troops except with the consent of Congress. Even Congress has no right to pass any law that is forbidden in the Constitution.

¹ The election of the president is done indirectly under the Constitution. The people choose men who are called electors. As many electors are chosen in each state as the state has senators and representatives. Thus, in New York there are chosen forty-five electors, because the state has two senators and forty-three representatives in Congress. The electors then vote for the president. Every elector, however, promises beforehand whom he will vote for, so that the people really elect the president. (In 1924 there were five hundred and thirty-one electors.)

² This is called the veto power. If the president objects to a bill, he sends it back to Congress, stating his objections. If Congress can get two thirds of the members of each House to vote to pass the bill again, it passes in spite of the president's objections.

BEFORE LEAVING DIVISION FOUR

I. Debate one or more of the following subjects :

1. *Resolved*, That Yorktown should have been listed as one of the fifteen decisive battles of the world rather than Saratoga.
2. *Resolved*, That the employment of Hessians by George III was more of a hindrance than a help to his plans for making the colonists obey him.
3. *Resolved*, That the assistance of France saved the colonies from being conquered by the king.
4. *Resolved*, That the colonies were justified in their opposition to the king, even to the extent of open rebellion.
5. If your class is large enough, organize it into the Second Continental Congress and debate this question : *Resolved*, That these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be, Free and Independent States ; that they are Absolved from all Allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved.

II. Prepare the following for your notebook :

1. A statement about each of the events listed below which will point out how it was a distinct step toward union among the colonies and the final establishment of the American nation.
 - a. The New England Confederation, 1643.
 - b. The Albany Congress, 1754.
 - c. The Stamp Act Congress, 1765.
 - d. Nonimportation agreements, 1765.
 - e. Committees of Correspondence, 1772.
 - f. The First Continental Congress, 1774.
 - g. The Second Continental Congress, 1775.
 - h. The Articles of Confederation, 1781-1789.
 - i. The Constitution, 1787.
2. A statement of about two hundred words in length about each of the following men : Samuel Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Patrick Henry, Marquis de Lafayette, George Washington, Robert Morris.

3. Brief statements of six causes of the Revolution and six reasons for the success of the Americans.
4. A list of what the class decides are ten of the most important dates in Division Four.
5. A *Hall of Fame* for this division. Let the making of the list of persons to be included in the *Hall* be a class exercise. A majority vote of the class should be required to place a name in the *Hall*. Be ready to defend the names you propose.
6. A map, as follows:
 - a. Title: The Colonies during the Revolution.
 - b. Use an outline map of the United States east of the Mississippi River.
 - c. Show and name the following physical features: Boston Harbor, Lake Champlain, New York Harbor, Hudson River, Delaware River, Lake Ontario, Mohawk valley, Chesapeake Bay, Allegheny Mountains, Wyoming valley, the Mississippi, Ohio, and Tennessee rivers, Illinois prairies, Potomac River.
 - d. Show the boundary of each of the thirteen colonies.
 - e. Locate Lexington, Concord, Bunker Hill, Long Island, Trenton, Albany, Valley Forge, Kaskaskia, Vincennes, Detroit, Boston, New York, Charleston, Philadelphia, Savannah, Camden, Yorktown, Monmouth, Saratoga, Fort Stanwix, Morristown, Princeton, Ticonderoga, Harrodsburg, Boonesboro, Pittsburgh, Nashville.

III. Be able to do the following:

1. Tell a straightforward story of Division Four.
2. Identify the following persons with the struggle for independence: Patrick Henry, Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, Samuel Adams, Thomas Jefferson, James Otis, William Pitt, Edmund Burke, Robert Morris, and Generals Gates, Greene, Howe, Cornwallis, Lafayette.
3. Identify each of the following dates with some important event and tell why it is important: 1763; 1765; July 4, 1776; 1777; 1778; 1783; 1787; 1789.

4. Without assistance from maps in books or elsewhere make a map of the United States in 1783 which will show the chief physical features and the location of the most important cities. Name each of the thirteen states. Use an outline map of the United States east of the Mississippi River. Indicate clearly the northern, western, and southern boundaries of the United States in 1783.
 5. Identify the following: "Give me liberty or give me death"; "Don't fire till you see the whites of their eyes"; Shays's Rebellion; Northwest Ordinance; nonimportation agreements; Loyalists; minute men; Intolerable Acts; Writs of Assistance; Stamp Act; Committees of Correspondence; Boston Port Bill; Townshend Acts; Boston Massacre; Second Continental Congress.
 6. Give a floor talk of four or five minutes on each of these topics or write a brief, well-organized discussion of each:
 - a. The Rights and Wrongs of the Loyalists.
 - b. The Compromises of the Constitution.
 - c. Sections and Classes Favoring and Opposing the Constitution.
 - d. The Importance of Saratoga.
 - e. Services of France to the United States in the Revolution.
 - f. Reasons for Changes in England's Treatment of the Colonies after 1763.
 - g. Weaknesses of the Articles of Confederation.
 - h. Examples of Coöperation and of Willingness to Compromise for the General Good.
 - i. The Part that was played by George III in bringing on the Revolution.
- IV. Conduct a "round-table" on books and stories of a historical nature read by members of the class while studying Division Four. Write what you are going to say about your book or story. Use only books or stories from the Story-Book Library on pages 155-156, or material of a similar nature. File your written statement in your notebook with the other material you have on this division.

DIVISION FIVE

NATIONALISM AND DEMOCRACY, 1789-1829

FOREWORD

When the present government of the United States was established by the Constitution of 1787, and Washington was inaugurated in 1789, a great experiment was started. Most European nations had very little popular government. Most of them gave the people very little power in determining how taxes should be raised, whether the country should go to war or not, and what laws should be passed. The United States was begun with the idea that the people should have the power to decide all these things through their representatives. Nobody knew whether the plan would succeed or fail. Nobody knew but that the republic might fall to pieces, and some man — Washington, for instance — become king.

The pages of Division Five tell of some of the great difficulties that this new experiment met in its first forty years. There are two great questions to be kept in mind in reading about these forty years :

What were the difficulties?

How can you account for the fact that the experiment did not fail?



“WESTWARD”

A symbolic picture (by the American artist Blasfield) in the Iowa state capitol, Des Moines. It is intended to suggest the importance, in American history, of the flow of population toward the West

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TWO TWELVE-BOOK LIBRARIES

I. A DAY-BY-DAY REFERENCE LIBRARY

The twelve books listed here will give you much interesting material on the topics included in Division Five. Look through the list. Have you already used some of these books? Does your school library or your public library have any of them? Secure as many of them as you can to use while you are studying this division.

1. *The Hero of Erie* (Oliver Hazard Perry), by James Barnes. D. Appleton and Company.

Excellent material on certain phases of the War of 1812. You will enjoy reading it.

2. *A New Nation*, edited by C. L. Barstow. The Century Co.

A collection of well-written accounts of Louisiana, causes of the War of 1812, and other topics discussed in the text. A few illustrations.

3. *Log Cabin Days in Indiana*, by Ruth J. Bowlus. The Bobbs-Merrill Company.

A vivid account of community and home life in one part of the West about 1822. Contains a few good pictures.

4. *Pioneer Life in Kentucky*, by Daniel Drake. The Robert Clark Company.

Letters from a father to his children about his own boyhood. An excellent picture of life on the frontier between 1788 and 1803.

5. *The War of 1812 and After (1812-1828)*, edited by Francis W. Halsey. Volume V of Great Epochs in American History. Funk & Wagnalls Company.

Besides material on the war, there are discussions of the Monroe Doctrine, the Missouri Compromise, how a log cabin was built, the Erie Canal, and the return of Lafayette.

6. *Early Years of the Republic (1784-1811)*, edited by Francis W. Halsey. Volume IV of Great Epochs in American History. Funk & Wagnalls Company.

Contains material on the condition of the country at the close of the Revolution, the election and inauguration of Washington, the invention of the cotton gin, the Whisky Rebellion, the purchase of Louisiana, Lewis and Clark's expedition, and the steamboat.

7. *Life in America One Hundred Years Ago*, by Gaillard Hunt. Harper & Brothers.

Probably the best available account of everyday life in the United States about 1815. Contains a few splendid illustrations.

8. *The Trail Blazers*, by Lawton B. Evans. Milton Bradley Company.
The story of the expedition of Lewis and Clark.

9. *How Our Grandfathers Lived*, edited by A. B. Hart. The Macmillan Company.

A collection of source extracts. First-hand accounts of life in the town, in the country, at sea, in school, and in the army.

10. *When America Became a Nation*, by Tudor Jenks. Thomas Y. Crowell Company.

Covers the period from 1789 to 1850. The first 224 pages are devoted to the period before 1830. A class reference book of great value.

11. *The Story of Robert Fulton*, by Inez N. McFee. One of the Famous Americans for Young Readers Series. Barse & Hopkins.

Contains much material on early steamboats and steamboating.

12. *The Story of Thomas Jefferson*, by Gene Stone. Another of the Famous Americans for Young Readers Series. Barse & Hopkins.

An interesting account of the life of the man who wrote the Declaration of Independence and who was president of his country for eight years.

II. A STORY-BOOK LIBRARY

As in the other story-book libraries, the books below are to be read straight through. Look over the list carefully. Do any of the brief descriptions catch your eye? Have you already read some of these books? How many of a similar nature can you add to the list?

1. *The Wilderness Road*, by J. A. Altsheler. D. Appleton and Company.

Describes the conflicts with the Indians during the early history of the Ohio valley. A romance of St. Clair's defeat and Wayne's victory.

2. *Strange Stories of 1812*, by W. J. Henderson and others. Harper & Brothers.

Well-told stories dealing with the battle of Lake Erie, the Fort Dearborn massacre, and other stirring events which occurred about the same time as the War of 1812.

3. *With Perry on Lake Erie*, by James Kaler. W. A. Wilde Company.

Describes Perry's victory on Lake Erie and the expeditions to Canada.

4. *Among the Fur Traders*, by James Kaler. Penn Publishing Company.
Fur-trading experiences in the Northwest about 1810.

5. *On the Borders with Andrew Jackson*, by John T. McIntyre. Penn Publishing Company.

The title suggests the contents.

6. *The Bears of Blue River*, by Charles Major. The Macmillan Company.
Life near Indianapolis during the twenties. Good to show the dangers and hardships of pioneer life.

7. *Letters of Polly the Pioneer*, by Stella Humphrey Nida. The Macmillan Company.

A word picture of pioneer life in the West during the eighteenth-twenties. Easy and interesting reading. A few good pictures.

8. *Lost with Lieutenant Pike*, by Edwin L. Sabin. J. B. Lippincott Company.

Pike's expedition in the West.

9. *Opening the West with Lewis and Clark*, by Edwin L. Sabin. J. B. Lippincott Company.

The title suggests what the story is about. Describes the country through which Lewis and Clark went.

10. *The Boys with Old Hickory*, by E. T. Tomlinson. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

The closing campaign of the War of 1812; Jackson at New Orleans.

11. *Boy Sailors of 1812*, by E. T. Tomlinson. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.
The War of 1812, especially Perry's deeds on Lake Erie.

12. *The War of 1812*, by E. T. Tomlinson. Silver, Burdett and Company.

Gives much prominence in story form to the War of 1812. The basis of the stories is historically true; the characters are imaginary.

DIVISION FIVE

NATIONALISM AND DEMOCRACY, 1789-1829

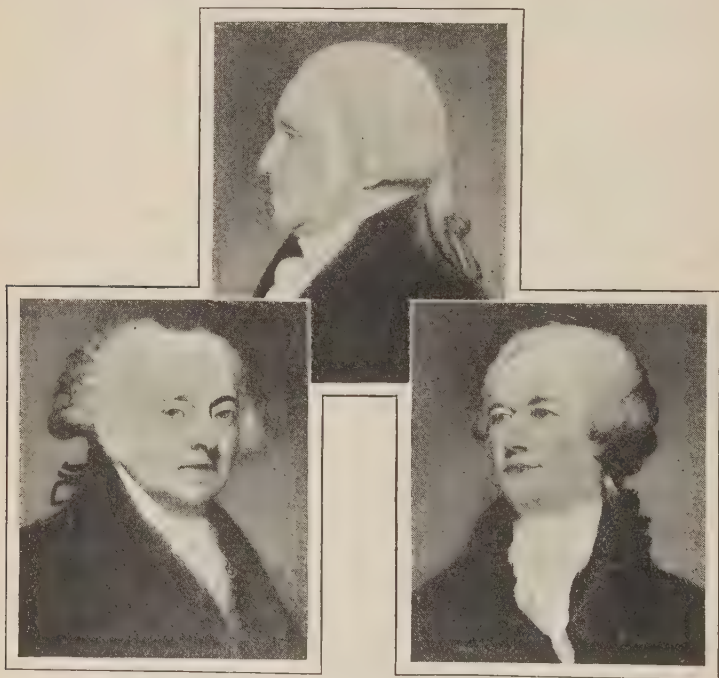
UNIT I. THE NEW NATION IN THE HANDS OF WASHINGTON, HAMILTON, AND JOHN ADAMS

The problems which the new nation faced in 1789 were those which most new countries face. Leaders had to be found, money raised, and foreign powers dealt with. During the first dozen years under the new Constitution, leadership was intrusted to Washington, Alexander Hamilton, and John Adams. These leaders were well known. They had served the country during the Revolution. Unless they could solve the problems which were coming up, it was certainly true that nobody else in the country could.

1. HOW THE NEW GOVERNMENT WAS LAUNCHED

As soon as the Constitution was adopted by all the states (except Rhode Island and North Carolina), plans had to be made for setting the new government in operation. Many of the things that were done at this time are worth remembering, because customs were started which are still followed. Moreover, it was by no means sure in the early days that the attempt to start an American republic would succeed. Everybody, from Washington down, felt that the United States was an experiment which might succeed or might fail. For this reason everything that Washington did helped to answer the question Can a republic be founded in America which will not soon fall to pieces?

Election and Inauguration of Washington. It was decided, for example, to start the new government on the first Wednesday in March, 1789. The first Wednesday fell on March 4, and ever since that time each new president has gone into



JOHN ADAMS, GEORGE WASHINGTON (ABOVE), AND ALEXANDER HAMILTON

power on the fourth day of March. It was decided also that the city of New York should be the capital for the time being.

There was no doubt about the choice of the first president. Everybody wanted Washington. As a recent writer has said, to have made anybody else president would have seemed like "crowning a subject while the king was by." Washington himself much preferred to remain at Mount Vernon; in fact, he said when he was going from his home up to New York to

be inaugurated that he felt like a prisoner on the way to his execution. Since Washington was from the South, it was felt that a Northerner ought to be chosen for vice president, and John Adams of Massachusetts was elected.

Because of several delays it was not until April 30, 1789, that Washington was inaugurated. A building on Wall Street in New York City had been prepared for use as the capitol building. On a balcony overlooking the street Washington



MOUNT VERNON, THE HOME OF WASHINGTON

took the oath of office, by which he promised to perform faithfully the duties of the presidency. After the oath was taken the chief law officer of New York, Robert R. Livingston, turned to the people and shouted, "Long Live George Washington, President of the United States!" Cheers broke out, cannon were fired, and the church bells were rung. The experiment of establishing a republic was now fairly begun.

From the balcony Washington turned to the room where the Senate was to meet, and there he addressed a joint session of the House and the Senate. He was not accustomed to public speaking, and he was more embarrassed than he was

on the battlefield facing muskets and cannon. The members of Congress were ill at ease, and had been having an argument with one another over the title that they should give to Washington. Some favored such a title as "His Highness, the President of the United States of America, and Protector of



GEORGE WASHINGTON BEING INAUGURATED AS PRESIDENT IN 1789

their Liberties," — a title which would sound like that of the royal head of a kingdom. In the end a much simpler one was chosen: "The President of the United States."

Customs of the First President. If we keep in mind the fact that the American republic was a new thing in the world, it will be easy to understand how worried Washington was about the way a president should act toward the people. Should he stay apart from them and behave like a king, or

should he mix with them so that anybody might be familiar with him? In this, as in other things, Washington did not go to either extreme. That the people might have a chance to see the head of their government, Washington decided to receive visitors every Tuesday afternoon from three to four o'clock. On these occasions he wore a suit of black velvet with knee breeches. His hair was powdered white, he carried



AT ONE OF MRS. WASHINGTON'S RECEPTIONS

From a painting by Daniel Huntington

a hat in his hand, and he wore at one side a sword in a scabbard of white leather. Every Friday evening Mrs. Washington held a reception which closed at nine o'clock, as that was the bedtime hour of the presidential family. When the President rode out with Mrs. Washington his carriage was drawn by four or six white horses, and there were attendants on horseback who were dressed in uniform and had their hair powdered.¹

¹ Washington was extremely fond of his horses. When they were ready to go out in the morning, a clean white handkerchief would be rubbed across them, and if any mark of dirt appeared, the stable boys would have to do their work again. If Washington was to use the white horses, they were covered with a white paste the night before. In the morning the paste was rubbed off.

The First Money-Raising Act and the First Cabinet. Though it was necessary to settle early the question of the president's appearance in public, the most important problem was that of paying the bills. How could money be raised to pay the salaries of the president, the members of Congress, and the other officers? How could the little army be supported, and how could the interest on the debt be paid? Under the leadership of James Madison, who was in the House of Representatives, the first tariff act answered these questions. It said that persons importing products into the United States must pay a tariff averaging about eight cents for every dollar's worth of goods. The plan was successful from the start, and nearly four and a half million dollars of revenue came into the Treasury during the first two years.

Among the first things that Washington himself had to think about was the selection of men to take charge of foreign affairs, the Treasury, the army, and the legal business of the government; in other words, to select what we now call a "cabinet." As Secretary of State, to take charge of foreign affairs, he chose Thomas Jefferson, the author of the Declaration of Independence. Jefferson had already shown his ability in France, where he was representing the United States during the time when the Constitution was being drawn up. Alexander Hamilton was appointed Secretary of the Treasury. Hamilton was only thirty-two years old, but he had been Washington's private secretary during part of the Revolution, had shown bravery as an artillery officer, and had taken a prominent part in securing the adoption of the Constitution.¹

¹ Alexander Hamilton was one of the most unusual men whom you will meet in your study of American history. He was born in the West Indies in 1757. At the age of eleven he was placed in a business office; when he was *twelve* he was left for a time in charge of the office! At fifteen he left the West Indies for good, came alone to the United States, and went to college at Columbia University.

The Revolution was breaking out when Hamilton was in college. One day there was a meeting in New York at which men made speeches about the quarrel with England. Young Hamilton thought that more ought to be said, so he pushed his

Henry Knox, Secretary of War, had been an artillery officer. Edmund Randolph, the Attorney-General, or law officer, had been governor of Virginia. Washington looked on these four men as his advisers, or cabinet, and was accustomed to consult them on many important matters.¹

Establishing Courts and Amending the Constitution. As soon as the revenue and the Cabinet were provided for, Congress turned its attention to the establishment of courts. The most important of these was the Supreme Court. Six judges were appointed for this body, John Jay being Chief Justice.

In the meantime the opponents of the Constitution were beginning to demand additions, or amendments, to that document. Several of the states had accepted the Constitution only on the understanding that amendments would be added. Seventy-eight changes were suggested, seventeen of which were accepted by the House. The Senate cut the number down to twelve, and these were sent to the states. The states accepted ten of them, and these became the first ten amendments to the Constitution under which we are living today.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Try to find and bring to the class pictures, cartoons, and similar materials which portray phases of life between 1789 and 1829. Later file these in your notebook.

2. Read "The Election and Inauguration of Washington," by Washington Irving, in *Early Years of the Republic* (1784-1811), pp. 51-61, Vol. IV of *Great Epochs in American History*; also an article on the same subject in *A New Nation* (edited by C. L. Barstow), pp. 18-24.

way to the platform and made a speech himself. When he was nineteen, the state of New York decided to raise an artillery company to assist Washington. Hamilton asked to be commander and was appointed. As Captain Hamilton he was highly thought of by Washington.

¹ In the fall of 1789 Washington made a journey to New England in order that the people might see the head of their government and become accustomed to the idea of an American nation. Later he visited Rhode Island, because that state had been opposed to the new union, and still later he visited the Southern states, going nearly nineteen hundred miles by carriage. He was pleasantly received everywhere.

3. Make a list of four reasons that one could have given in 1789 for doubting the success of the new American republic.

4. List five customs that were started while Washington was president that are still followed today.

5. The year 1789 was once named by a number of historians as the fourth most important date in the history of the United States. The first was 1776, the second was 1492, and the third was 1607. Argue for or against this order of arrangement.

6. Read Eva March Tappan's *Story of Our Constitution*, chaps. viii, ix, x.

7. Tell the story of the launching of the new government under the Constitution to your teacher, to your history class, or to your family.

8. Now is the time to read the first ten amendments to the Constitution. Turn to Appendix B and do this.

2. WHAT GREAT PLANS DID HAMILTON PROPOSE ?

Four Great Laws. It was at this point in our history — the first administration of Washington — that four great laws were proposed to Congress. One of these laws made provision for paying the public debt, another proposed that the government assume the state debts, a third provided for giving the government more income, and the fourth ordered the establishment of a United States Bank. Inasmuch as Alexander Hamilton proposed these laws and worked hard to get Congress to pass them, they are known as his great plans.

Paying the War Debt. The amount of the debt that the United States owed foreign countries and Americans who had lent money during the Revolution was about \$54,000,000. Hamilton proposed to pay off this entire debt in the course of time, and thus establish the credit of the United States among the nations of the world.

Assuming the State War Debts. Although the first of Hamilton's projects was accepted by Congress without great disagreement, the second suggestion was not so fortunate. He

proposed that the United States take over, or "assume" and pay, the debts that the states owed on account of the Revolution. Some of the states had already paid part of their debts, and they did not wish to help toward paying the debts of other states. For the most part, however, the Northern states were ready to agree to Hamilton's plan.

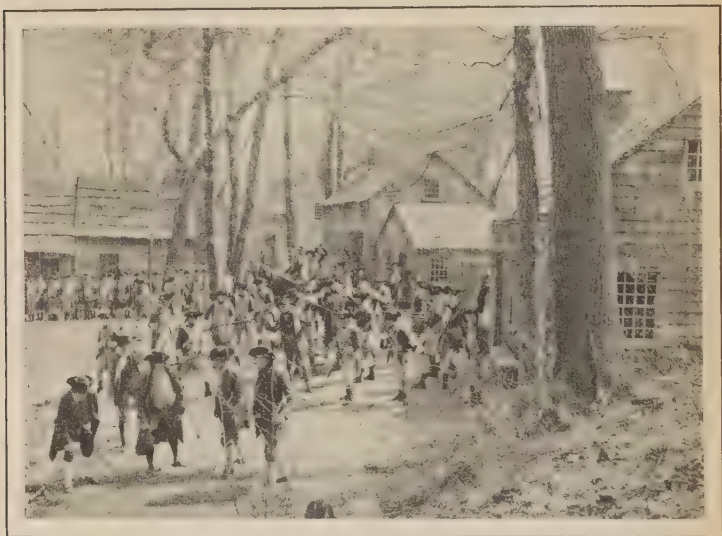
It was just at this time that the question of the permanent location of the capital came up. Pennsylvania wanted it in Philadelphia; the Southerners wanted it on the Potomac. Hamilton and Jefferson, as two of the most influential men in the government, then arranged a bargain: Hamilton was to influence *his* friends to agree to establish the capital in the South, and Jefferson was to influence *his* friends to vote for "assumption." It was finally agreed that the capital should be in Philadelphia for ten years (until 1800) and then on the Potomac River at a place to be picked out by Washington. The assumption of the state debts was agreed to by Congress at the same time.

The "Excise" Tax. The third of Hamilton's plans was intended to give the government more income, the tariff not having produced enough. The plan was to levy a tax called an "excise," or internal-revenue tax, on every gallon of whisky made in the United States. Congress agreed to the proposal, but difficulties quickly appeared.

The tax bore most heavily on the people of western Pennsylvania, who had many small distilleries where they made whisky out of their rye, wheat, and corn. Since these people were far away from the markets of the East, and the roads were very poor, they were unable to carry their heavy loads of grain to the cities and towns. Therefore they distilled the grain into whisky, which could more easily be carried because of its small bulk. In a short time the people of western Pennsylvania refused to pay the tax, and Washington sent an army of 15,000 men to compel obedience. Resistance

died out at once, and Washington pardoned the leaders of what is generally known as the Whisky Rebellion. The incident showed that the new Federal government could force people to obey its laws.

The National Bank. The National Bank was the fourth of Hamilton's great suggestions. There were only three banks



THE END OF THE WHISKY REBELLION

From "Alexander Hamilton," one of The Chronicles of America Photoplays.
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in the whole United States at the beginning of Washington's first administration. Instead of putting their money into banks for safekeeping, the people were obliged to hide it in their own homes. Hamilton's plan was for a United States Bank, with branches in the chief cities, which would be partly controlled by the government and would run for twenty years. Congress agreed, and the plan was sent to Washington for his approval.

Washington was not sure whether the Constitution allowed Congress to establish a bank or not, and he asked the members of the cabinet for advice. Hamilton wrote a reply arguing for the bank, and Jefferson wrote one arguing against it. Washington finally agreed with Hamilton, and signed the bank bill. It would require \$10,000,000 to start the bank. The government was to put in \$2,000,000 of this, and the people the remaining \$8,000,000. On the fourth of July, 1791, the officials of the bank let the people invest their money in the new enterprise. Within two hours the entire \$8,000,000 was invested.¹

Federalists and Republicans. It is necessary to notice exactly why Hamilton suggested his plans, because they split the American people into two groups: the friends of his schemes (who called themselves Federalists) and the enemies of his plans (who were known as Republicans).² In offering his proposals Hamilton had three things in mind:

He wished to show all the nations of the world that the United States could pay her bills and would do so to the last penny.

By getting the wealthy and powerful people of the country to put their money into the United States Bank, he hoped to make them interested in the United States government.

He hoped to make the central government very powerful — more powerful than the states. He wished it to be powerful through having a big revenue come in from the tariff and excise. When the farmers of western Pennsylvania rebelled against the excise, he was glad of the chance to show the power of the Federal government by sending a big army to stamp out the trouble.

¹ Hamilton drew up also a plan for a mint in which coins would be made for the government. The coins which he suggested were copper cents and half-cents, silver dimes and dollars, and gold pieces.

² This is the party which is now called the Democratic party. The present Republican party began much later.

However, by the time that the four plans were all put through, a great many people were bitterly opposed to Hamilton and everything that he did. We remember that many members of the Constitutional Convention of 1787 had been afraid that the big states would control the central government and tyrannize over the little states. We remember that when the Constitution was sent out to the people for their adoption, many feared that a big, powerful government was going to be set up which would be as tyrannical as the king's government. Hamilton's friend Madison feared his plans, and so did Thomas Jefferson. At last Jefferson became so sure that Hamilton would turn the United States into a sort of kingdom controlled by a few rich people that he resigned from Washington's cabinet. Hamilton resigned about the same time, and the quarrel between the two continued.

Hamilton made no secret of his belief that most people could not be trusted to choose public officers and conduct the government; hence the farmers and laboring people began to be suspicious of him, while the merchants, traders, and bankers supported him. Much to Washington's distress the quarrel grew and spread until each side was extremely bitter toward the other.

Business Conditions during Washington's Administration. In the early years of the new government business prospered on account of the wise acts of President Washington, the four plans of Hamilton, the sensible form of government laid down by the Constitution, the great resources of the country in people, land, and forests, and the demand of Europe for American goods. The bank was successful from the start. Business men found it of great service, and other banks were started. Agriculture and manufacturing prospered, and foreign trade increased rapidly.¹

¹ Beginning in 1792, with a road from Philadelphia to Lancaster, Pennsylvania, private companies started laying out excellent roads called turnpikes. In order to

In 1795 an arrangement was made with Spain by which the people of the West could use the port of New Orleans, which was then in Spanish hands. The Westerners began to carry flour, grain, pork, whisky, and tobacco down the Mississippi River to New Orleans on rafts or on flatboats. At that point the goods were taken on board vessels bound for various parts of the world.

The products of the states along the Atlantic coast were sent to the West Indies, Europe, and China in return for sugar, manufactured goods, and tea. So much foreign trade required many ships, and thus shipbuilding increased.¹

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Reread the treatment of Hamilton's four plans until you can discuss them in a connected way without the aid of the text.

2. Show in a three-minute floor talk that good roads might have prevented the Whisky Rebellion.

3. Show why the farmers opposed Hamilton's plans, and why the merchants favored them.

4. Imagine that you were living while the quarrel between Hamilton and Jefferson was at its height. Take a stand for or against Hamilton. Defend your position in a short floor talk before the class.

5. Make a list of five reasons why business prospered during Washington's administration.

go on the turnpikes, any driver had to pay a sum of money called a toll, the amount depending on the size of his wagon. At points on these roads there were small houses where the toll-collectors stayed. If the collector saw a wagon approaching, he turned across the road a long pole covered with sharp points, or pikes, to stop the traveler until he had paid his toll. These poles were called turnpikes (the name given to the roads themselves).

¹ During the early part of Washington's presidency the Indians of what is now Ohio began to get restless. Washington sent General St. Clair against them; but St. Clair allowed himself to be surrounded and beaten, and only fifty of his fourteen hundred men got out of the battle uninjured. Washington then sent out Anthony Wayne, a veteran of the Revolution, who spent a year training a small army. In 1794 Wayne fell upon a band of thirteen hundred Indians who came out at him from some fallen timber overgrown with high grass. Wayne defeated them in what is called the battle of Fallen Timber, and the Indians left the settlers alone for a long time thereafter.

6. Test yourself on the meaning of the following words and expressions: assumption, excise, Whisky Rebellion, National Bank, Federalists, Republicans, toll, turnpike, and Fallen Timber.

7. Search the books in the Day-by-Day Reference Library on pages 240 and 241 for extra material on Hamilton and his plans. The brief descriptions of the books will help you to choose the ones to examine.

8. Answer these questions about each of the pictures in Unit I of Division Five: Could this picture be a photograph? Why? Is it likely that the picture is accurate? Why?

3. HOW FOREIGN POWERS TREATED THE NEW NATION

For many years after the election of President Washington there was danger of war with France or England, or with both. A brief glance at conditions in Europe at this time will show why it was so difficult for our early presidents to keep out of a war.

The French Revolution, 1789. While the events of Washington's administration were peacefully occurring, certain things were happening in France which were to have a marked effect on the United States. If we remember how the American colonists had been drawn into the great European wars before the Revolution, it will be easy to understand the great danger that faced the United States. The danger arose from France, our friend of Revolutionary days.

The people of France had long been bitterly opposed to their king. The reason for this situation is not hard to understand.

Most of the people of France owned very little property; nevertheless the government raised most of its money by taxing these same poor folks and allowing the rich to escape. Often the wretched farmer had to pay to the government four fifths of his income in taxes, and half starve, half live, on the remaining fifth.

Many of the rich and titled people of France lived a considerable part of the year at the king's court in Paris, feasting, dancing, and enjoying themselves. The queen alone had five hundred servants, and in the king's stable were nineteen hundred horses. Although France was almost bankrupt, the king gave presents to his friends worth \$100,000,000 in fifteen years. The sort of gift which the king gave is seen in a picture



THE STORMING OF THE BASTILLE

An incident at the opening of the French Revolution. From an old engraving made after study of the accounts of the attack

of himself which he presented to Benjamin Franklin when Franklin was leaving France in 1785. The picture was framed in a double circle of four hundred and eight diamonds!

The contrast between their poverty and the king's wastefulness finally aroused the French people to revolt. In the very year when Washington took the oath of office in New York, the people of France rose against the king and demanded that the rich should be taxed as well as the poor. The rich and titled classes were not willing to give up their

privileges, and civil war resulted — the king and his friends on one side, and the great mass of common people on the other. Most of the people of the United States were happy about the news from France, because it looked as if France were revolting against a tyrannical king and a tyrannical system of taxation, just as the colonists had done.

And then in 1793 came the news that the people of France had executed their king. Later came word that friends of the king were being killed, and at last a European war broke out. People in America hardly knew what to think. To Hamilton and his friends the French Revolution seemed to prove that the common people could not be trusted. Jefferson and his friends felt that the French had lost their senses only for a time, and that they were really fighting for liberty, just as we had done.

Washington's Stand for Neutrality. Washington was calmer than either group. He felt that the United States would be ruined if it got mixed up in a European war just as it was beginning to pay its debts and develop industry. For that reason he made a public statement, or "proclamation," on April 22, 1793, saying that the United States would be friendly to both sides in the contest. As he had just been re-elected president and would remain at the head of the government for four years, it seemed likely that his influence might keep the United States safe from the great quarrel across the water.

The French, however, expected help from us because they had helped the United States. A messenger named Genêt was sent over with orders to get the United States to aid France. He was received with tremendous enthusiasm, especially by the followers of Jefferson. Washington refused to budge from his opinion that the United States ought to keep out of war, and then Genêt thought that he could get the people to act against Washington's opinion. On this

Genêt quickly lost his popularity, and had to give up his office and his attempt to influence America.

Jay's Treaty with England. The fact that most of Europe was tangled up in the war gave the United States a great opportunity to expand her trade. England, France, and the other countries needed food which the United States could supply, and American ships soon dotted the ocean. Shortly, however, England began to find fault because the United States was supplying food to France, and she began to capture American crews and to seize American ships. It looked as if the United States would be dragged into the war in spite of all that could be done to keep out. As a last resort Washington sent Chief Justice Jay of the Supreme Court to England to attempt a settlement of our complaints. The treaty which Jay brought back allowed the United States to trade with English colonies in the East and West Indies, but England would not agree to stop capturing our crews. The people, especially the Republicans, condemned the treaty. They denounced Jay. They stoned Hamilton when he tried to make a public speech in favor of the treaty, and were bitter against even Washington himself. Nevertheless the treaty was accepted, and it kept the United States out of the European war for a time, at least.¹

By the time Jay's treaty was agreed to, Washington's second administration was coming to a close, and in 1796 John Adams, a Federalist, was chosen to succeed him. Washington gladly retired to his home at Mount Vernon, where he died in 1799.²

¹ The Jay treaty contained also an agreement by England to withdraw her soldiers from the forts in the West, where they had been ever since the Revolution.

² Washington's "Farewell Address to the American People" was issued just as he retired. In it he urged the people to be loyal to their government and to keep out of European quarrels. During the latter part of his presidency Washington had had many extremely bitter enemies who had lost no opportunity of condemning him. This enmity, however, disappeared after his death. The custom of celebrating February 22 as Washington's Birthday seems to have begun in 1783.

Irregular Warfare with France. Although the Jay Treaty kept the peace with England, it greatly disappointed France, who hoped to have the United States for an ally against her enemy. Thereupon President Adams sent over three men to discuss relations between the United States and France. When they arrived, three Frenchmen met them and said that the government would not talk with them until the United States agreed to pay a bribe to the officers of the government. The Americans refused and sent an account of the incident to Adams. Adams laid it before Congress, substituting the letters X, Y, and Z for the real names of the Frenchmen. Everybody — Republicans and Federalists, Congress and the people — was intensely angry about the "XYZ Affair." Three large war vessels were quickly put in readiness for fighting. "Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute" became a popular cry. On the sea American ships fought French ships here and there until the quarrel was settled two years later.¹

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Show in what respects the American Revolution and the French Revolution were alike and in what respects they were different.

2. Explain the meaning of the following: king's court, civil war, tyrannical system of taxation, neutrality, X Y Z Affair, Republicans and Federalists.

3. Account for the sympathy of Jefferson and his followers for France, and their hatred of England.

4. Give three examples of the changing attitude of the people of the United States between 1789 and 1800 toward public men and foreign nations.

5. Be sure to read the discussion of the French Revolution in *Sword of Liberty* (see page 154), and the words of "Hail Columbia."

¹ During this period, when the feeling against France was so strong, Joseph Hopkinson wrote the words of the song "Hail Columbia," which is still widely sung.

4. WHY THE FEDERALISTS WERE OVERTHROWN

The Sedition Act of 1798. Their firm stand against France gave John Adams¹ and the Federalist party great popularity for a little while, and they decided to take advantage of it.

For some time various newspaper writers and others had been bitter in their attacks on Washington, Adams, and the other government officers. So the Federalists passed a law called the Sedition Act, forbidding anybody to stir up hatred against any government official. Then they began to fine and imprison some of their political opponents. One man was fined \$400 and put in prison for six months for what would now be considered a very moderate criticism of President Adams.

The Republicans at once sought for means to fight the Sedition Act. Led by Madison and Jefferson, they aroused the legislatures of Virginia and Kentucky to protest. The Virginia legislature adopted some resolutions condemning the Sedition Act. The Kentucky resolutions declared that the Constitution did not give Congress the right to pass such laws, and that the states ought to "nullify" them; that is, prevent their going into force.

Feeling ran high among the Republicans, for the Sedition Act looked to them like an attempt to prevent all criticism of the government. Jefferson and his friends began to organize their party more carefully, working especially among the farmers, mechanics, and poorer classes, who were already suspicious of the sort of government that Washington, Hamilton, and Adams had favored. When the election of a president again took place in 1800, it was seen how well the Republicans had done their work. Adams, who wished to

¹ President John Adams was born in Massachusetts in 1735. He died in 1826, when he was nearly ninety-one years of age. His wife, Abigail Adams, was a very able woman. It was she who wrote the letters referred to on pages 212-214, telling about the work of women in the Revolution.

he elected president again, was defeated, and Jefferson was chosen in his place. Aaron Burr, a Republican from New York, was made vice president. The Federalists never again elected a president, and after a few unsuccessful attempts to do so the party fell to pieces.

John Marshall, the Last of the Federalists. Just before John Adams left the presidency he appointed John Marshall, a prominent Federalist, as Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. Marshall believed thoroughly in Hamilton's principles, and, as it happened, he was at the head of the court for thirty-four years. During this time the court made a large number of very important decisions. Since Marshall was an unusually able judge he generally succeeded in persuading the rest of the court to agree with him; hence for thirty-four years, although there was no Federalist party, the decisions of the Supreme Court were such as Hamilton would have favored if he had been alive.¹

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Explain the meaning of "Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute."
2. Show why the Republicans should want to help France and oppose Jay's treaty, and why the Federalists should favor the treaty and be opposed to aiding France.
3. Make a list of five causes for the downfall of the Federalists.
4. Test yourself on the meaning of the following words and expressions: French Revolution, proclamation, Jay's treaty, Sedition Act, nullify, Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions.
5. Read James Morgan's discussion of Washington and John Adams in his book *Our Presidents*. This is one of the books in the first of the Twelve-Book Libraries at the beginning of this text.

¹ Hamilton was killed in a duel with Aaron Burr in 1804. From the Revolution up to this time, dueling was common in the United States. The killing of Hamilton brought public attention to the disgraceful practice, and gradually it was stopped.

UNIT II. THE NATION UNDER THE LEADERSHIP OF JEFFERSON, MADISON, AND GALLATIN

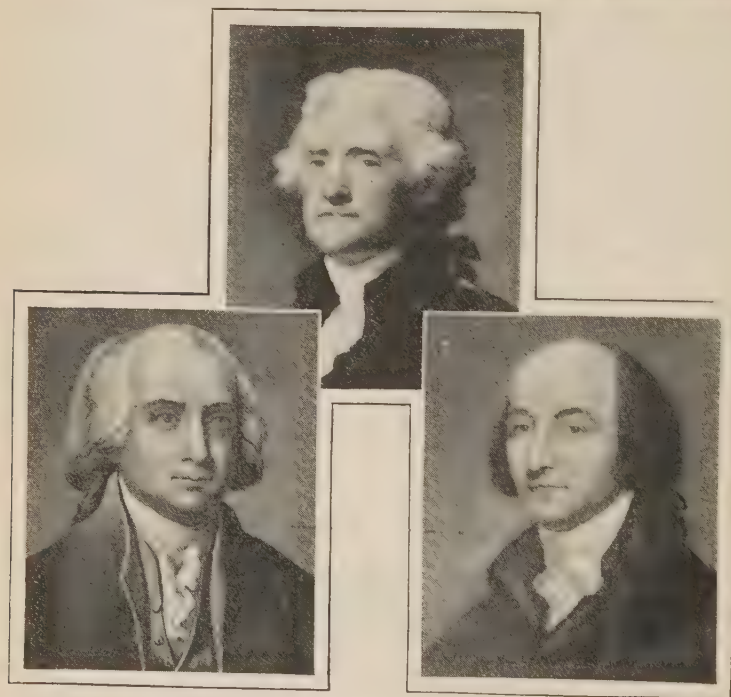
Ever since the days of Hamilton and Jefferson, Americans have debated the question Which was right, Hamilton or Jefferson? Was Hamilton right in wishing to have a strong government supported by the bankers, merchants, traders, and business men; or was Jefferson right in wishing to have a weaker government in which the farmers, mechanics, and poorer classes would have a voice? To these questions we of the present day can add another: Were not Hamilton and Jefferson both partly right and partly wrong? Do we not need a strong government in which *all classes* — bankers and business men, farmers and workmen, rich and poor, men and women, young and old — shall have not only a voice but also a very great interest? It was evident from the results of the election in 1800 that the voters wished to give Jefferson's ideas a trial.

1. WHAT WERE THE BELIEFS AND POLICIES OF JEFFERSON?

The Personality and the Beliefs of Jefferson.¹ Jefferson had been well known ever since his connection with the Declaration of Independence twenty-five years before his inauguration. He was a tall, slender man, six feet two and a half inches in height, with reddish hair, a reddish, freckled face, and gray eyes. He had an astonishing number of interests. He was a fair musician, a good architect, and a skillful horseman. He could write with either hand. He invented a revolving chair such as we now use in offices, and a little instrument which he could put in his pocket to tell how far he had gone when he took a walk. He kept a record of the weather, the temperature, and the direction of the wind for

¹ Jefferson was born in Virginia in 1743 and died there in 1826, on the very day when John Adams died.

fifty years. It is said that a stranger met Jefferson at an inn and fell into conversation with him. When Jefferson talked about legal subjects, he showed so much learning that the stranger thought he was a lawyer: when he talked about



JAMES MADISON, THOMAS JEFFERSON (ABOVE), AND ALBERT GALLATIN

Three leaders during the early years of the Republic

medicine, the stranger thought he was a doctor; and when he talked about religion and science, the stranger thought he must be a clergyman or a scientist.

Several of Jefferson's beliefs were important because he tried to put them into effect as president:

He disliked Washington's habit of holding formal receptions and driving out with many horses and attendants.

He wished to run the government in Washington with as little expense as possible.

He believed that the common people should have a hand in their government and that their judgment on public affairs was to be trusted.

The New Capital and Jefferson's Inauguration. The inauguration of Jefferson on March 4, 1801, was the first to take place in the city of Washington, although the office and business of the government had been moved there from Philadelphia the year before.

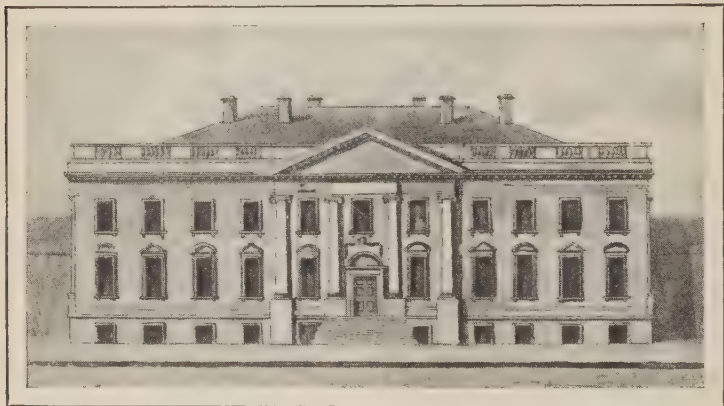
In 1801 Washington was not the large and beautiful city that it now is. It contained only a few people. Only one wing of the Capitol was ready. Near it were a few buildings, including some boarding-houses. Toward the west was a swamp through which ran a small stream, and beyond it was the president's house. The visitor going from the Capitol to the president's house made his way along a path across the swamp through the woods — a path covered here and there with bits of stone and refuse from buildings that were being put up.

The president's house scarcely resembled the handsome White House of today. It was as yet only partly built. The roof leaked. In winter it was difficult to keep warm; for although there was plenty of wood around, nobody could be found to cut it. In summer the region was unhealthful because it was full of fever germs, and people left town if possible. On the whole it seemed like a gloomy spot to people who were accustomed to the gayety of European capitals or to the life of New York and Philadelphia.

Jefferson's inauguration was as simple as it could be made. Toward noon, from his boarding-house not far away, he walked over to the Capitol surrounded by some friends and a troop of militia. He was met in the Senate chamber by Aaron Burr, the new vice president, and conducted to his

seat. After a short pause he rose and read his message in a voice so low that it could be heard only by the people who were nearest him.¹

Cutting down the National Debt and Whipping the Barbary Pirates. Jefferson was able to put one of his principles into practice at once. By having a smaller army and navy and by being careful of expenses in every department, he was able to



THE WHITE HOUSE AS IT APPEARED ABOUT 1801

pay off one third of the national debt in eight years. This work was done chiefly by Jefferson's skillful Secretary of the Treasury, Albert Gallatin.

There soon arose, however, a grave need for a good navy. On the northern coast of Africa there were several small countries whose inhabitants were accustomed to send out war vessels to prey upon small ships. These people were known as the Barbary pirates. European nations had long been accustomed to pay the pirates for leaving their ships alone. The United States had done the same. Just before Jefferson became president the United States built some war vessels

¹ Compare this with the ability of presidents today to be heard over the radio by millions of people.

because of the danger of war with France. Jefferson intended to use these ships to whip the Barbary pirates. Under the command of Bainbridge, Decatur, Preble, and others, the vessels went over and so thoroughly defeated the pirates that there was no more trouble.

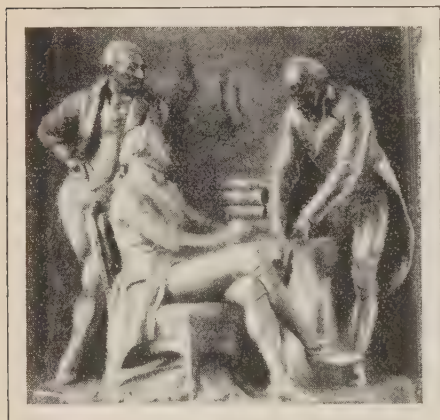
The Purchase of Louisiana. While President Jefferson was bothering about such small matters as cutting down here and there the cost of running the government, he was suddenly faced with the opportunity to do something of great importance.

The western boundary of the United States, we remember, was at the Mississippi River. Beyond the Mississippi, extending to the Rocky Mountains, was an enormous region known as Louisiana. It included also a little land east of the Mississippi where the city of New Orleans is. Louisiana had for some years been owned by Spain, but *Spain had sold it to France* just before Jefferson became president. Jefferson was worried by the news; for France was now under the control of Napoleon, an ambitious, powerful ruler, who was continually at war with other European nations. What would Napoleon do with Louisiana? Would he start a great colony which would endanger the western part of the United States? Furthermore, the products of our Western people were sent down the Mississippi to New Orleans, and there put aboard ocean-going vessels. Now that Napoleon owned New Orleans, would he stop this trade? The state of Kentucky had been admitted to the Union in 1792; Tennessee, in 1796; and Ohio, in 1803. People were going into the region in large numbers. What would happen to America if New Orleans were controlled by an enemy?

Jefferson decided to send James Monroe to France to talk with our minister there, Robert R. Livingston, and find out whether Napoleon would sell New Orleans. Monroe was to offer two million dollars.

In the meantime Napoleon was debating whether he wanted to keep any of Louisiana. He was on the verge of trouble with England, and money would be necessary for conducting a war. And, besides, it would cost men and money to defend Louisiana in case of danger. Hence Napoleon suddenly offered Monroe and Livingston the whole of Louisiana — New Orleans and the enormous territory as far as

the Rocky Mountains. The Americans decided to accept the offer, and the price agreed on was \$15,000,000.



A PORTION OF A MONUMENT COMMEMORATING THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE

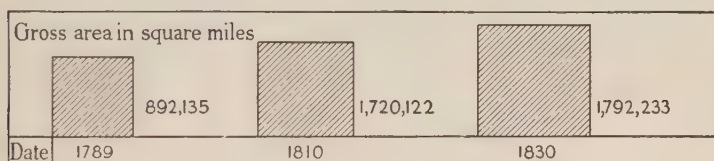
Jefferson was greatly in doubt when he heard of the agreement which Monroe and Livingston had made. He had always said that the Constitution did not allow the United States to purchase territory. He had opposed the Federalists when they had

strengthened the central government by even so small a matter as starting a bank. Yet he himself was facing so great a plan as a purchase which would *double the size of the country*! How could he favor so important an act after he had complained of the Federalists for a much smaller one? While he was hesitating he heard that Napoleon was thinking about withdrawing the offer, and then he decided that he had better take the bargain while he could. It was too great a chance to miss.

When the people heard of Jefferson's actions, there was a general agreement in Congress and outside that he had done

well, although the few Federalists that were left were inclined at first to oppose. New England was especially uneasy. That section was so small compared with the Louisiana Purchase that it looked as if New England would be overshadowed by the great West. One New England leader even threatened later that the New England states might leave the Union because of Jefferson's act, but nothing came of the threat.

The Exploration of the Louisiana Purchase. Just what the United States had purchased nobody knew, not even Jefferson himself. The boundaries were indefinite, the value of



INCREASE IN THE AREA OF THE UNITED STATES, 1789-1830

the territory undreamed of. Rumors said that Indians of gigantic size inhabited it, that the land was so fertile that products grew almost without attention from human hands, and that far up the Missouri River was a mountain of pure white salt one hundred and eighty-five miles long and forty-five miles wide.

Under Jefferson's direction a band of explorers was gathered, commanded by Meriwether Lewis and William Clark (the latter a brother of George Rogers Clark, who had earlier explored the territory north of the Ohio River). For six months Lewis and Clark drilled and trained their men, and in 1804 they set out with forty-five followers up the Missouri River. Their route up the Missouri, across the mountains, down the Columbia River, and back to St. Louis may easily be traced on the map, but no words can fully describe the mass of information which they gathered, or the dangers

of rivers and floods, of wild animals and Indians, which they faced. For the first time it became possible to give some accurate ideas concerning the country west of the Mississippi. Moreover, the expedition gave the United States a claim to the territory west of the Rocky Mountains and opened the way for the fur-traders and trappers.

While Lewis and Clark were in the Far West a small expedition under Zebulon M. Pike was attempting to find the source of the Mississippi River. As soon as Pike returned from this trip he led another expedition up the Arkansas River. On the stream first, and finally on horseback, Pike made his way into the mountain region until he reached the spot where Pueblo, Colorado, now stands. A high mountain near the present city of Colorado Springs was named Pikes Peak in honor of the brave explorer.

Success of Jefferson's Republican Policies. In 1804 Jefferson was reelected with scarcely any opposition. Even New England gave him considerable support. His Republican policies had satisfied the great body of the people :

The government had been run economically.

The national debt had been reduced.

The purchase of Louisiana was popular in most parts of the country.

The interest of the West had been looked after in the repeal of the whisky tax and in the Louisiana Purchase.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Give four reasons why you would or would not have voted for Jefferson in 1800.
2. Imagine that you were present at Jefferson's inauguration on March 4, 1801. In a brief floor talk describe the city and ceremonies.
3. There is an abundance of material on the events treated in the discussion of Jefferson's beliefs and policies. Search the books in the Twelve-Book Libraries on pages 240-242 for some of this material.



VIEW OF THE COLUMBIA RIVER (TRAVERSED BY LEWIS AND CLARK)

Copyright by Cross & Dimmett



A VIEW OF PIKES PEAK

4. Read "Thomas Jefferson," in *Our Presidents*, by James Morgan, pp. 20-32. Do you agree with Morgan's account?

5. Make a list of the states that lie wholly or in part within the territory purchased by Jefferson.

6. Trace on an outline map the boundaries of the Louisiana Purchase, Lewis and Clark's expedition, Pike's expedition to the source of the Mississippi River in 1805-1806 and his expedition to Colorado in 1806-1807. Do not fail to read the *Trail Blazers*, by L. B. Evans.

7. Show in a short floor talk wherein Jefferson's Republican policies succeeded and wherein they failed.

8. Read *The Story of Thomas Jefferson*, by Gene Stone.

2. HOW JEFFERSON DEALT WITH FOREIGN POWERS

War between France and England. In the midst of Jefferson's success at home there appeared again the threat of war from abroad. In 1803 France and England were at war once more. France was led by Napoleon, one of the greatest military leaders the world has ever seen. On the land he seemed unbeatable. Pressing far out beyond the boundaries of France, he defeated enemies wherever he met them. Austria and Russia entered the war on England's side, as did Prussia, Sweden, and Portugal. It was to no avail! Napoleon was able to defeat them all.

On the sea, however, there was another story. In 1805 the English under Admiral Nelson met the French fleet at Trafalgar, off the coast of Spain, and there won a great victory. Thereafter England controlled the seas, while Napoleon controlled the land. Neither was able, therefore, to get a complete victory over the other, and the struggle went on. Each side held what advantage it had and looked about for more.

American Trade on the Seas. If the United States could keep out of war, our merchants could make great profits. Now that the French navy was defeated, French ships had to keep off the seas or run the risk of capture by England.

France then turned to the United States for her supplies, and American ships did a thriving business. Our trade was four times as large in 1806 as it had been in 1803. Prices abroad on tobacco, flour, and cotton were double what they were in America. With the chance for such profits in mind, the American shipowners were ready to take great risks. It was even claimed that trade would be profitable if only one ship in three successfully landed its cargo.

Then began the attacks of England and France on American commerce. The English complained that the United States was really helping France by carrying food and other supplies which helped to keep the French army alive. England therefore began to seize American ships. Thereupon France began the same policy, to get even and to prevent American ships from carrying goods to England: wherever possible France seized American ships exactly as England did. Since the United States had no great navy to protect her traders, they were being crushed in the life-and-death struggle between England and France. As England had control of the seas, however, she did more damage to American vessels than France did.

Complaints against England. The hatred of England which most Americans had felt after the Revolution now flared up again. There were two chief reasons for this. The first was the firing on American vessels by England. To prevent American vessels from carrying goods to France, English warships waited just outside the harbors of American ports so as to stop any craft that they pleased. If American vessels did not stop when told to, the English fired on them.

The second complaint of the United States against England was that about "impressment." The British navy was so large that it demanded great numbers of sailors. Many of the sailors were men who had been seized on the streets of English cities, carried aboard ships, and forced to serve.

Many of the officers were brutally severe. The food and the quarters where the sailors lived were bad. Hence thousands of sailors deserted to American merchant ships, where wages and conditions of work were better. Many of the deserters became American citizens.

Thereupon the English ship captains stopped American vessels and searched the crews for British deserters. Sometimes they took off, or "impressed," deserters who were still British, sometimes they impressed sailors who had become naturalized Americans,¹ and sometimes they impressed native Americans who had never been Englishmen at all. Once impressed, these men were cruelly treated and were generally not allowed to return to America.

What the *Leopard* did. In 1807 occurred an incident that aroused bitter complaint in America. The United States war vessel or "frigate" *Chesapeake* was leaving the coast of Virginia when she was stopped by the English vessel *Leopard*. The captain of the *Leopard* declared that there were English deserters aboard the *Chesapeake*, and he ordered their surrender. The captain of the *Chesapeake* refused, and the *Leopard* began firing. The American vessel was not ready for battle, as many of her guns were not in position; but her captain refused to give in until twenty-one of his men had been killed or wounded. Then the English captain took off four men who, he said, were deserters. The people of the United States were in a rage, and Jefferson ordered all British war vessels to leave America.

Jefferson's Embargo Policy. Jefferson disliked to lead the United States into war, just as much as Washington did at the time of the Jay treaty. Moreover, he remembered that during his younger days, at the time of the Stamp Act and

¹ England paid no attention to naturalization. She held that "once an Englishman, always an Englishman"; that is, if a man were born an Englishman he could never be naturalized into an American.

the Townshend Act, the United States had brought Great Britain to terms in another way; namely, by stopping trade with her. Accordingly Jefferson suggested that Congress pass the "Embargo Act," and Congress acted as he wished. This act forbade American vessels to sail to foreign ports. Jefferson hoped and believed that Great Britain and France would be in such distress from the loss of American products that they would stop doing the things we objected to. The results were both surprising and disappointing. The act harmed the United States more than it did England or France. Many of our seamen were thrown out of work. Ships had to remain idle in the harbors. Goods which had been made and products which had been grown to send abroad could not be sold except at a great loss. Grass began to grow around the wharves.



MRS. DOLLY MADISON

From a painting by the American artist Stuart. (Copyright by Detroit Publishing Company)

There was bitter hatred of Jefferson in New England, where the shipping business was very important. Not only was the Embargo Act broken constantly, but it was even suggested that some states might refuse to obey the law at all and separate from the rest of the Union.¹ At last Jefferson

¹ Some opponents of the law amused themselves by turning around the letters of the word "embargo." They said that the letters reversed spelled "o-grab-me." "Go-bar-em," and "mob-rage" would result if the law were not repealed.

found the opposition so great and the results of the law so disappointing that he asked Congress to repeal the act.

This was done just before Jefferson left the presidency, in March, 1809. He felt that two terms were enough for any president to serve.¹ Thereupon James Madison,² who had been his Secretary of State, was elected to the office.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Reread the foregoing discussion of Jefferson's foreign policy. Do this with the idea of suggesting ways and means of combating England and France that Jefferson did not use. What are your suggestions?

2. Choose sides and debate this question: *Resolved*, That Jefferson had sufficient reasons for asking Congress to declare war on England in 1807.

3. Speak for or against the proposition that Hamilton's policies were more beneficial to the new nation than those of Jefferson.

4. Compare and contrast the success of Jefferson's embargo policy with the nonimportation policy used against England by the colonies before 1776.

5. Explain in a sentence or two the historical importance of the following: Napoleon, Admiral Nelson, "Once an Englishman, always an Englishman," Embargo Act, impressment.

3. HOW THE WAR OF 1812 WAS CAUSED AND FOUGHT

Drifting toward War. Three things happened during 1811 which brought England and the United States nearer to war. One of these events was the fight between the *President* and the *Little Belt*. The United States frigate *President* was

¹ After his two terms of office were over, Jefferson went to his home in Virginia, where he lived until 1826. He died on July 4, fifty years after the passage of the Declaration of Independence. As Adams was dying he was heard to say, "Thomas Jefferson still lives." In reality, Jefferson had died a few hours before.

² Like Washington and Jefferson, James Madison was a Virginian. He was born in 1751 and died in 1836. Madison was a little man, very quiet, neat, and polite. Mrs. Madison was generally known as "Dolly" Madison, and was a famous hostess at the White House.

looking for an English vessel which had impressed an American sailor. One day the *President* came upon the English ship *Little Belt*, and a battle resulted in which the American ship was the winner. It gave great satisfaction to the United States to feel that at last a blow had been struck to prevent impressment.

The second event, the battle of Tippecanoe, occurred in the West. The Indians had been getting restless and warlike. The Westerners believed England had been stirring up the red men and supplying them with arms. Finally, in 1811, a force of trained American fighters under William Henry Harrison met the Indians at Tippecanoe, in what is now Indiana. Although the Indians were beaten, the Americans blamed England for the danger they had been in.

The third thing that brought England and the United States near war was the appearance of some new leaders in Washington. Late in 1811 there was a meeting of Congress in which there were several young members who favored war. They have generally been known as the "war hawks." Henry Clay, from Kentucky, and John C. Calhoun, from South Carolina, were the ablest among them.

By 1811 most of the Revolutionary leaders were dead or in retirement. Washington and Hamilton were not alive; Jefferson and John Adams were out of office. The new leaders had grown up since the Revolution. They did not feel so much state patriotism, and could not remember the days when there was no United States. They wished to give up any further attempt to keep peace with England and see what could be done by war.

The Declaration of War, June 18, 1812. In the meanwhile England was in a serious situation. The European war continued. Napoleon seemed unbeatable; England's business was in bad condition; her national debt was piling up; and her men were being killed by the thousand on the battlefields

of Europe. She was not anxious, therefore, to have a war with the United States in addition to what she already had.

On June 16, 1812, the English government announced that it would stop attacks on American commerce. If there had been a telegraph cable or a wireless system at that time, American history might have been different for the next few years; but there was not, and it was a long time before the news of England's action reached America.

Two days after the English government made its announcement, and long before it was known in America, Congress and President Madison agreed on a declaration of war against Great Britain. There were three chief reasons:

The belief that the English government was stirring up the Indians to revolt in the West.

The stopping of American ships when carrying goods to Europe.

The impressment of American seamen. The vote in Congress declaring war was chiefly from the South and the West, as New England was still bitterly opposed to it.

Was the United States Ready for War? The United States had several disadvantages and several advantages in going into the War of 1812. The disadvantages seemed tremendous:

The War Department was not ready to raise or handle large numbers of soldiers. The regular army consisted of only six thousand seven hundred men. Most of the generals were old men who had had no experience since the Revolution, and there was no Washington to lead them.

There was very little money in the Treasury.

New England, which was one of the most populous and wealthy sections, was against the war.

The navy numbered only twelve vessels to England's eight hundred or more.

But the advantages were not all on England's side. The following conditions were favorable to the United States:

England was already in the midst of a war which was taking all her strength.

The United States was so far from England that it would be a very difficult task to bring over sufficient men and supplies.

The Americans were spread out over so great an area that even if one part were conquered, the war would still be far from finished.

The United States navy, though small, contained many of the most skilled sailors in the world, who knew how to make the most of their ships.

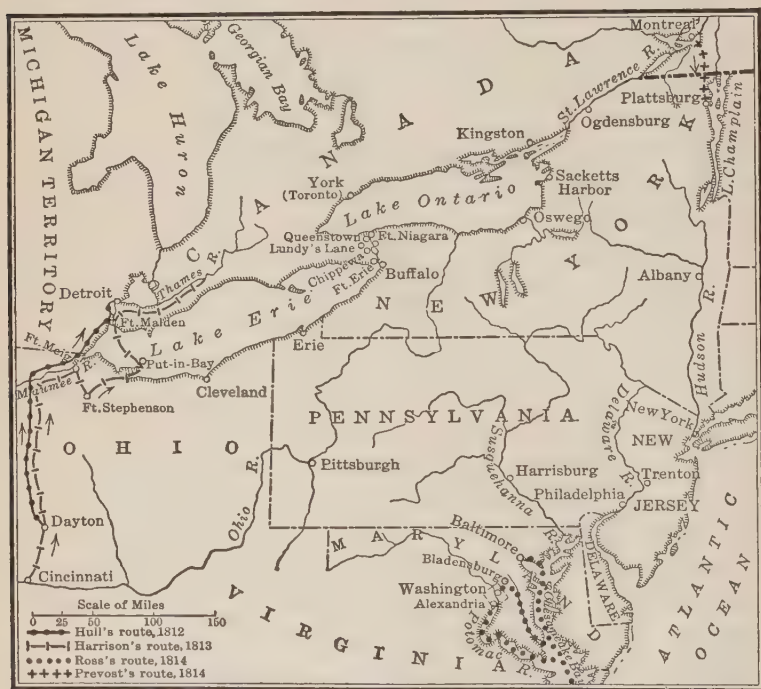
On to Canada! The war hawks were of the opinion that the United States could invade Canada and wrench from England her one remaining great colony in America. Clay went so far as to declare that the Kentucky militia would be able to take Canada alone. Hence they raised the cry "On to Canada!"

Plans were accordingly made to invade Canada from four places at the same time, and to have the four invading armies come together at Montreal. The points from which the expeditions were to start were Lake Champlain, Sacketts Harbor, Niagara, and Detroit (for these points and Montreal see the map on page 280).

The first move was made at Detroit, where General William Hull was in command. Hull had served during the Revolution and was supposed to be a man of ability. In July, 1812, he led his little army across the river from Detroit into Canada and came upon the enemy at Malden. Instead of attacking at once, Hull delayed until the Canadians had gathered more troops, and then he marched back to Detroit. Meanwhile his officers and men lost their confidence in him because he seemed to lack the courage and readiness to fight.

Isaac Brock, the Canadian general, followed Hull to Detroit, where he made ready to attack him. To Brock's astonish-

ment Hull surrendered without a struggle. In this way the Americans lost an army and the fort of Detroit, which really controlled the whole territory of Michigan. Moreover, it practically ruined the plan to invade Canada and discouraged



THE WAR OF 1812

Campaigns in the North and around Chesapeake Bay

the United States at the start. Hull was tried, condemned as a coward, and sentenced to be shot. President Madison pardoned him, however, on account of his services during the Revolution.

The attempts to invade Canada from the other points were also dismal failures. An expedition started from Plattsburg, near Lake Champlain; but when the militia had reached the

Canadian border they refused to march out of the country and returned to Plattsburg. The army that started from Niagara was beaten at Queenstown with the loss of a thousand men.

The blame for these failures could not be placed entirely on any one person. In the first place, the country through which the armies had to march did not have proper roads; in the second place, the population near the border was so scattered that it was impossible to buy supplies on the march, and therefore food and other necessities had to be brought from great distances. It must be remembered, too, that the United States was not really prepared for war. The armies were too small and not well drilled. The officers were not well trained, and an important part of the country was opposed to any war whatever.

The Success of Perry. In 1813 another attempt was made to defeat the Canadians in the West. A young naval officer, Oliver Hazard Perry, was sent to Lake Erie to build a small fleet. Perry had great energy, and he worked fast in spite of the fact that he had to bring his carpenters, sailors, and tools from Philadelphia, and even from New York, five hundred miles away. Early in the fall Perry had a fleet of ten small vessels, half of which he had himself built from timber cut on the banks of the lake. The British had been hastily building a fleet on their side of the water, and on September 10, 1813, the two commanders met in a fierce battle that lasted more than three hours. The ship on which Perry was, the *Lawrence*, was finally so damaged that he had to leave her. Four fifths of the crew were dead or wounded; but, leaping into an open boat, Perry went to the *Niagara*, another of his fleet, which was unharmed. Again he attacked, and was soon victorious. Taking a piece of an envelope, he wrote this message to General William Henry Harrison: "We have met the enemy and they are ours. Two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop."

William Henry Harrison. After the failure of Hull at Detroit William Henry Harrison had succeeded to the command and had prepared to act as soon as the British ships were cleared from the lake. After receiving Perry's message Harrison moved his men across to Malden and defeated the enemy on the Thames River. Among the killed on the English side was Tecumseh, an Indian chief who had been dangerous for many years along the western frontier.

The successes of Perry and Harrison were indications of a change that was being made in the army. The incompetent generals were being weeded out, and better ones put in their places. Among the new officers were Jacob Brown and Winfield Scott. On July 5, 1814, the latter met a small British force at Chippewa and won a victory. A little later Brown and Scott together held their own at Lundy's Lane against an enemy force that outnumbered them.

The results of two years of fighting on the Canadian border were unimportant. The later victories somewhat made up for the early defeats, but reënforcements were coming over from England and were enough to prevent the United States from making any headway whatever in Canada, to say nothing of capturing such a great stronghold as Montreal.

War on the Ocean. The War of 1812, however, was not fought entirely on land. It was to a considerable extent a naval war, and for a time American successes on the ocean partly made up for the failures in New York and in the West.

The United States had only a small navy, but three of her vessels — the *President*, the *Constitution*, and the *United States* — were uncommonly powerful ones. At the outset of the war these vessels and the others were sent out to find the enemy wherever possible and fight him. To the delight of the United States and to the amazement of England the Americans gained some notable victories.

The most famous of these sea fights was that between the *Constitution* and the *Guerrière*. It may serve as an example of several others which occurred during the year 1812. The commander of the *Constitution* was Captain Isaac Hull, a nephew of the general who had failed at Detroit. On August 19, 1812, Captain Hull came upon the English frigate



THE *CONSTITUTION*, OFTEN CALLED *OLD IRONSIDES*

A forty-four-gun man-of-war, ordered sent out by Congress at the time of the threatened war with France (1798)

Guerrière, seventy-five miles east of Boston. The *Guerrière* was well known to the Americans as one of the vessels which had engaged in impressment. Hull waited until he was close to his opponent, and then he poured into her a heavy fire from the whole starboard side of his ship. In fifteen minutes the *Guerrière* had lost one mast, and in thirty minutes the mainmast was gone, several shots had made holes in the hull, and her captain was wounded. The British ship then had to

surrender. She was so badly injured that Captain Hull blew her up and carried her officers and crew prisoners to Boston.¹

A great deal of damage was done to British shipping by American privateers. Some of these were mere fishing vessels fitted out with a gun or two, and some were large and powerful enough to meet a war vessel. One, the *Yankee*, was said to have captured more than \$5,000,000 worth of British property. All together, there were 526 privateers, and they seized 1344 vessels.

The victories of the *Constitution*² and other frigates, together with the successes of the privateers, were a source of pride to the people of the United States. The English, accustomed to victory on the seas, were startled by so many defeats; but of course the tiny American navy could hardly hope to win all the time against so great a navy as that of England. One by one the American vessels were driven from the seas; some were captured, and some were bottled up in the harbors by English fleets sailing about outside. By 1813 the activities of the American navy were pretty much

¹ Another famous fight was that between the *Chesapeake* and the *Shannon*. In 1813 Captain James Lawrence was in command of the *Chesapeake* in Boston Harbor. On June 1 he learned that the English frigate *Shannon* was blockading the harbor, and he went out to meet her. The *Shannon* was one of the "crack" ships of the British navy, and the contest was short and decisive. Moving up to within fifty yards of the enemy, Lawrence poured in a destructive fire which the British returned. Unhappily the *Chesapeake* lost an important sail, her rudder was disabled, and then Lawrence was fatally wounded, together with several of his officers. In fifteen minutes the *Chesapeake* was compelled to surrender. But Lawrence's last words, as he was being carried from the deck, have become famous: "Don't give up the ship."

² A famous story concerning the *Constitution* shows the great skill which the American seamen possessed:

In July, 1812, Captail Hull of the *Constitution* fell in with the enemy along toward evening. As it was too late to fight that day, both ships lay to until morning. When daylight came Hull was astonished to see four other British ships near. As there was scarcely a breath of wind, Hull lightened his ship by pumping out several thousand gallons of water that had leaked in, and he also kept the sails wet to close up the canvas and use what little wind there was. Thereupon the British got out all their rowboats and started to tow one of their frigates close to the *Constitution*.

To meet this maneuver, Hull resorted to a clever scheme. He tied together all the rope he could find, half a mile of it; then he fastened an anchor to one end and

at an end, and few vessels of any kind went in and out of the harbors until the close of the war.

The British Plan for 1814. By 1814 the war in Europe had gone against Napoleon, and English veteran troops were thus available for the American war. A new threefold attack on the United States was planned :

An expedition from Canada was to attempt an invasion of the United States by way of Burgoyne's old route along Lake Champlain.

An attack was to be made on Chesapeake Bay.

A third attack was to be made in the Southwest at the mouth of the Mississippi River. Each of these three attacks had an important result.

The Lake Champlain Expedition. During September, 1814, Sir George Prevost with ten thousand troops started to invade the United States over the Lake Champlain route. He was supported on the lake by a small fleet of little vessels. The Americans, under Commodore Thomas Macdonough, had brought together a small fleet to fight Prevost, and the two met in a short-range fight. The result was the defeat and capture of most of the English ships. Prevost returned to Canada.

The Attacks upon Washington and Baltimore. In August, 1814, General Ross landed on the shore of Chesapeake Bay near Washington, with four thousand veteran English soldiers. The Americans had neglected to make any preparations : no troops had been gathered, and no forts or earthworks had

sent a boat out to drop it. The crew on the ship then pulled on the rope, and thus hauled the ship slowly up to the anchor. The anchor was then lifted, carried ahead, dropped, and the whole process repeated. This was kept up all night, the sailors dropping now and then from exhaustion. At last Hull saw a squall of wind approaching which would strike him before it reached the British fleet. He hurriedly pulled in all his sails as if the wind were a terrific one. As Hull well knew, the British were watching him, and when they saw his apparent fear they took in all their sails and fastened them with great care. The moment the wind came, however, Hull set his sails with all speed, and by the time the enemy had discovered the plan the American ship had got too far away to be captured. The chase lasted about two days and a half.

been prepared. When the British were actually at hand a force was hastily collected, but it was no match for experienced soldiers. The English marched slowly toward Washington, easily defeated the Americans, and sent out men who burned the Capitol, the White House, and other buildings.¹



THE OCTAGON HOUSE

This building was used as the White House when the British burned the Capitol during the War of 1812

The British army then returned to the ships in the bay and, in a little more than a week from the time the troops had landed, were ready to start off on another raid.

This time Ross turned toward Baltimore. But the people of that city had learned something from the experience of

¹ The British claimed that the burning of these buildings in Washington merely evened matters up for the burning of Toronto (or York, as it was then called) by American troops in 1813. Some people claim that the burning of Washington was worse, because it was done by order of the officers, whereas the burning of York was done by private soldiers. As a matter of fact, nobody need be very proud of either act.

Washington. They had thrown up fortifications below the town, had put cannon in place, and had gathered a considerable force of men. When the English expedition attacked Baltimore, therefore, a stout resistance was met.¹ Ross himself was killed, and the attack made so little headway that it was given up. Again the British took to the ships, and the ships set out to sea, leaving Chesapeake Bay as peaceful as it had been before the war began.

New Orleans, January 8, 1815. The third attack on the United States was at the mouth of the Mississippi River. In December, 1814, a fleet carrying a large force of veterans commanded by Generals Pakenham and Gibbs reached southern Louisiana.

General Andrew Jackson, who was in command of the Americans, marched his men a few miles below New Orleans. Here he took up a position with a swamp on his left and the Mississippi River on his right. He threw up a line of earthworks from the swamp to the river, and watched for Pakenham and Gibbs to appear. On January 8, 1815, the British made their attack, marching bravely but foolishly right into the face of Jackson's fire. Jackson's men, safe behind their earthworks, poured a deadly cannon and musket fire into the British lines. Pakenham fell, Gibbs was fatally wounded, and their men went down in heaps. Jackson lost seventy-one men; the English lost over two thousand. Jackson at once became the hero of the Southwest, and the disaster at Washington was forgotten in the victory at New Orleans.

The Treaty of Ghent and the Results of the War. When Pakenham and Gibbs started their men forward, they could

¹ While the British were attacking Baltimore a young American named Francis Scott Key was on board an English vessel in Chesapeake Bay arranging for the exchange of American for British prisoners. Key was kept on the vessel through the night. As he looked early in the morning to see whether the city had been forced to surrender, he saw with relief that the flag was still floating over Fort McHenry. Inspired by the incident, he wrote the words of the "Star-Spangled Banner."

have saved their own lives and the lives of their two thousand men if they could have telegraphed by wireless to a ship on the Atlantic Ocean.

At the moment when the British were making their attack a ship was hurrying toward New York with the news that a treaty of peace had been made. The treaty had, in fact, been signed by the English and American commissioners on the



SIGNING THE TREATY OF GHENT

An artist's conception of the event

day before Christmas, 1814, at the town of Ghent, in Belgium. Its contents were extraordinary. England did not promise to give up impressment or to stop annoying American trade. The treaty merely declared the war at an end and made arrangements for the settlement of a boundary dispute and a few minor difficulties. In other words, none of the reasons for fighting which were mentioned in the declaration of war were settled by the treaty. In spite of these facts, however, the war had some important results :

1. *Loss of Men and Money.* While it is not known exactly how many men were lost during the War of 1812, perhaps thirty thousand men were killed or wounded, or died of disease, or were taken prisoners. The cost was not far from \$200,000,000.

2. *Leaders Discovered.* Several men who later became leading Americans received their early training in the war. Such were William Henry Harrison, Winfield Scott, and Andrew Jackson in the army, and Henry Clay and John Quincy Adams in the conduct of foreign relations.

3. *National Patriotism.* The people were greatly discouraged late in the war because of the many disasters on land and sea. Then came the news of the victory of New Orleans and the end of the conflict. Immediately there was tremendous rejoicing. Americans remembered the naval victories and forgot the defeats. They were no longer divided into a party favoring England and a party favoring France, but all turned their attention to the development of the United States. They began to study the history of the country, and especially the story of the Revolution and the lives of such men as George Washington and others; in fact, the people of the United States became so boastful of their heroes and their victories that visitors from Europe frequently made fun of us.

4. *Political Effects.* The effects on the Federalists and the Republicans were peculiar. The Federalists were disliked because they had opposed the war. Just before the close of the struggle some of the Federalists of New England had a meeting at Hartford, Connecticut. It was their idea to protest against the acts of the central government, just as the legislatures of Virginia and Kentucky had done at the time of the Sedition Act. But the end of the war made their protests useless. The "Hartford Convention," as the meeting has been called, seemed like treason to the rest of the country and gave the Federalists a bad reputation.

The Republicans, as the result of the war, adopted many of the principles of the Federalists. After the war, for example, they accepted the United States Bank, which Jefferson had fought; they raised the tariff; and they somewhat enlarged the army and navy. Hence, while the Federalists were disappearing, the Republicans were growing stronger by taking over some of the best ideas of their opponents. Clearly the people of the United States had accepted Hamilton's belief in a strong central government.

Changing America. Other things that were happening in Europe and America at this time had a great effect on American history.

Napoleon by 1815 was finally defeated and sent into exile. Europe breathed easily once more. Armies and navies were cut down. It was not necessary to impress American seamen for the English navy, nor was neutral trade annoyed by either England or France. Hence the disputes which had caused the War of 1812 gradually disappeared.¹

Industry, especially manufacturing and the means of transportation, became more important than ever before in the United States. The people began to go into the western part of the country to live. These two matters, the growth of industry and the opening of the West, were so interesting and important that they demand special attention.²

¹ During the war there was more or less rivalry on the Great Lakes to see whether Great Britain or the United States would keep the larger navy there. The rivalry continued after the war and seemed likely to be costly and a temptation to start another fight. Hence in 1817 the two nations agreed to destroy all war vessels on the lakes and not to build any more. Since that time there have been no forts or warships on the Canadian line from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and no battles have ever been fought between the United States and Canada.

² It used to be considered patriotic to teach that the United States completely whipped England in every battle in the War of 1812. Recent writers have opposed this (1) because it is not true; (2) because it has encouraged Americans to suppose that they could whip a great military and naval nation without making proper preparations; (3) because it seems more patriotic to admit our faults and failures and try to correct them than to make believe that our soldiers and sailors were always victorious.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Choose sides and debate the following question: *Resolved*, That the United States had more reasons for fighting France than England in 1811.

2. Point out the forces at work today that might have prevented the War of 1812.

3. Show why the South and the West favored the declaration of war and why New England opposed it.

4. Make a brief outline of the story of the War of 1812 as told above. Use the following as the three main topics in your outline: Attempts to invade Canada; The War on the Ocean; The British Plans of 1814. Practice telling each section of this story until you can do the whole without the aid of the text.

5. Make a list of all the persons mentioned in the section on the War of 1812. Identify each with reference to his part in the war.

6. Now is the time to read James Morgan's treatment of James Madison in his book *Our Presidents*.

7. Prepare three-minute floor talks on each of these topics: Results of the War of 1812; Reasons for the Declaration of War; Advantages of the United States at the Beginning of the War; Disadvantages of the United States at the Beginning of the War.

8. Read the material dealing with the War of 1812 in Great Epochs in American History, Vol. V.

UNIT III. AMERICA TURNING WESTWARD

1. HOW THE NEW WEST AROSE

Early Migration toward the West. Far back in the early colonial days Thomas Hooker and his congregation had become dissatisfied with conditions around Boston, and had gone into what was then the West; namely, the Connecticut valley. The Scotch-Irish immigrants, who came to America in such numbers before the Revolution, settled by the thousand on the slopes of North Carolina.

Between 1790 and 1810 more than half a million settlers went into Kentucky and Tennessee. If we could have flown over Kentucky in an airplane at any time between 1790 and 1810, we could have watched this population grow. When we arrived in 1790 we should have seen the settlements in that part of Kentucky opposite Cincinnati, Ohio, which had been started by adventurous spirits like Daniel Boone. Their settlements would have seemed like an island surrounded by forests. In eastern Tennessee, near the source of the Cumberland and Tennessee rivers, which come close at these points to North Carolina, we should have seen similar settlements started by James Robertson. And then we should have seen the streams of settlers from the coast states coming over the mountains and down the valleys, settling first in the part of Kentucky near the Ohio River, and then in the parts of Tennessee near the valleys of the Cumberland and Tennessee rivers.

The Increase in Westward Migration after 1810. After 1810, and especially after the War of 1812, the streams of migration to the West became increasingly greater. The migration, in fact, became one of the great wonders of American history, and naturally raises in our minds the question Why did so many go? In those days, when travel was so difficult, so costly, and took so much time, few of the immigrants would ever again see their Eastern friends and neighbors. Even letters would seldom be written, for postage was high — fifteen cents in 1816 for a single sheet of paper going as far as ninety miles. Moreover, paper and writing materials were scarce. Fewer people could write then, and post-office boxes and mail-carriers were not near at hand as they are today. What did so many people expect to find in the West that would be such an improvement over the East?

There will be no difficulty in answering these questions if we keep in mind the fact that nearly all the people in those

days earned their living by farming. By the time of the War of 1812 nearly all the best farm land in New England — that is, the fertile valleys — was gone. In the Southern states from Maryland down the land was getting worn out. Tobacco eats up the good qualities of the soil unusually fast, and parts of Virginia had already been occupied for more than two hundred years.

Favorable Conditions in the West. In that part of the West which is south of the Ohio River the soil was extremely good for cotton and tobacco. The dark soil, the warm climate, and the amount of rain gave ideal conditions for growing cotton. Kentucky in particular grew tobacco successfully. It has been said that nowhere else in the world is there so big an area so well suited to agriculture as the Mississippi Valley. North of the Ohio River both corn and wheat grow well. The traveler today going through that region sees mile after mile — in fact, hundreds of miles after hundreds of miles — of level land covered with huge crops of corn, wheat, and other agricultural products.

Moreover, there was plenty of this land. The United States government was gradually pushing the Indians farther and farther back. Plenty of land could be bought for two dollars an acre. People frequently found land which they liked and merely settled on it ("squatted," they said) without paying so much as a penny. There were so few government officers about, and the area was so big, that it might not be discovered for years that they had taken the land without paying for it. In addition to the fertile soil, there were forests which supplied wood for houses and fuel for fires. In some parts of the West there were quantities of salt, iron, coal, and lead. A traveler in 1813 met an Irishman who said that he had not fifty dollars in the world fifteen years before, but that now he would not take \$4000 for his farm.

The people of the Southern states from North Carolina to Georgia had another reason for migrating. We remember that the demand for cotton was growing faster than ever before in the world's history. Mills were being built which were constantly crying for more and more cotton. The big plantations along the coast, however, were already in the possession of the great planters. If a farmer did not belong to one of these families, how could he grow the cotton that the mills wished to buy? Clearly, he could do it by going West and taking up some of the cheap land there which was more fertile than the land on the coast. And so to the West went great numbers of people from the Carolinas and Georgia.

But these people who left their friends in the East probably never expected to see them again. Did they not hate to leave their homes and plunge into the unknown, dangerous wilderness? Many of them apparently did not. They did not have plenty of friends and neighbors close by, as people do nowadays. They worked hard for a living from sunrise to sunset; and if they could earn a better living more easily by going to the West, about which they had heard such glowing stories, it was natural for them to go.

Roads to the West. When the traveler from the East went to seek his fortune in the West, he had to find one of the few roads which went through the "gaps" (or lower parts) in the Appalachian Mountain range. New England is separated from New York by the Green Mountains in western Vermont and by the Berkshire Hills in western Massachusetts and Connecticut. From middle New York and Pennsylvania southwest to Georgia the Appalachians form a long barrier. From Springfield, Massachusetts, a road ran through the Berkshires to Albany, and from Albany through to Lake Erie ran a highway which followed the Mohawk River valley. There was another road from Philadelphia to the West, another up the Potomac valley, and still another farther

south which reached the sources of the Tennessee River. Furthermore, immigrants from the southernmost states could travel round the lower end of the Appalachian Range in Georgia.

Experiences going West. It is impossible, of course, to relate even a small fraction of the many experiences which these hundreds of thousands of immigrants to the West had during



FORT DEARBORN, CHICAGO, IN 1816

Original owned by the Chicago Historical Society

the thirty or forty years which followed the War of 1812. A few of them will serve to illustrate what our ancestors did.

One man, who was going through western Pennsylvania in 1817, told of seeing people with small wagons containing their bedding, provisions, and dishes. The children were walking along beside the wagon. Another immigrant had merely a horse which was carrying a pack. Still another had no animal at all, and owned nothing but what he and his wife and children could carry on their backs.

A man who was traveling to the South in the same year saw a large group going to Alabama together. There were

twenty wagons, twenty-nine herds of cattle, twenty-seven droves of hogs, and thirty-eight hundred people. Sometimes many members of a church or a town migrated in a group and founded in the West a new town to which they gave the name of their former home.

When the roads were bad, as they generally were, the difficulties in getting ahead were tremendous. Sometimes there were mudholes where horses and even whole wagonloads of goods sank out of sight. When rivers had to be crossed, the travelers sought shallow places where the stream could be forded. Frequently, however, no ford could be found, or recent rains had swelled the river to such a height that it was dangerous to cross. Wagons would be overturned and lost attempting the passage; or they would wait for lower water until dozens or scores were packed in the road to wait, sometimes for days, before a crossing could be made.

At night the travelers slept in their wagons, if they had them, or on the ground if the weather permitted. Other people stayed in the rough hotels, or taverns, when they could find them. One young girl going to Ohio in 1810 wrote letters home telling of her experiences at a tavern on the way. The sheets were so dirty that she was afraid to sleep in them, the air was so foul as to be almost unbreathable, and the owner of the tavern and his family lived in a room with half-picked chickens hanging over the door and with kettles, dirty dishes, and potato barrels all about. Another traveler stayed over night with a private family. Supper consisted of three courses, each served in a large bowl: the first course was sour milk; the second, pork and pickled cabbage; the third, cold bread and milk. The members of the family and the traveler, each armed with a spoon, dipped into the bowl and got as much as possible.

If the traveler could do so, he avoided many of these difficulties by making the journey in one of the famous Conestoga

wagons. This was a heavy vehicle covered with canvas, the wheels being from four to six inches wide, and the harness heavy. It took from four to six horses to draw a wagon. The under part was always painted blue and the upper part red. In it could be carried all sorts of household goods, and its strong cover formed a protection against wind, weather, and the night.

When the traveler reached the rivers which flowed toward the West, he made the rest of the journey on a flatboat, or ark. These were of various kinds, but a common type of flatboat was forty or fifty feet long and shaped like a raft. It might be entirely covered over for protection against the weather, or it might have only a small cabin. It floated downstream guided by a big oar at the rear. When the traveler reached the end of his journey, he generally used the lumber of which the boat was made in building his cabin.

The flatboat was also used for carrying goods down the rivers to such markets as New Orleans. Most of the flatboats were too heavy and awkward to be brought back up the river; but smaller boats would return with molasses, sugar, and coffee, which the settlers on the Ohio and the upper Mississippi wished to buy.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Give a word-picture of the westward migration up to 1810. To do this well you may need first to make an outline.

2. Give a short talk on the topic "Reasons for going West in 1820."

3. Choose sides and debate these questions: (1) *Resolved*, That the public land ought to have been free from the very first; (2) *Resolved*, That the people of North Carolina and Georgia had more reasons for going West about 1830 than the people of New England.

4. On an outline map of the eastern United States show the following: all the states that were admitted before 1830, Appalachian Mountains, Green Mountains, Berkshire Hills, the Mohawk, Poto-

mac and Tennessee rivers, Albany, Springfield, Philadelphia, and the five roads mentioned in the paragraph on the roads to the West.

5. Do not miss reading a part of *Pioneer Life in Kentucky*, by Daniel Drake, and *Log Cabin Days in Indiana*, by Ruth J. Bowlus.

6. Imagine yourself going West in 1810. Relate some of your experiences to the class or to your family.

2. HOW THE NEW WEST FILLED UP

New Means of Transportation : Highways, Canals, and Steamboats. The migration of such great numbers of people gave rise, of course, to the demand for better and swifter means of moving; and as soon as better and swifter means of moving were invented, greater and greater numbers of people went West. The government began to look into the need of highways and canals over all the country. Even before the War of 1812 the Secretary of the Treasury, Albert Gallatin, had reported on a country-wide system. His idea was to have canals all along the Atlantic coast and to have other canals and roads connecting these with the rivers of the Mississippi Valley.

Not all of Gallatin's plan was ever put into effect. It is safe to say, however, that more improvements were made in transportation between 1790 and 1830 in the United States and European countries than had previously been made anywhere in the world since people began to live on this earth. Three of these improvements must be mentioned.

1. The first was the *improved highway*. The earliest of the well-made turnpikes — namely, that which ran to Lancaster, Pennsylvania — has already been mentioned. During the seven years after 1800 more than three thousand miles of new highway were built. The most important single road was called the "Cumberland," or "National," Road. Perhaps it has had more effect on American history than any single highway ever built in the United States. It began at Cumber-

land, Maryland, well up on the Potomac River. It was built by the United States government. The first ten miles were finished in 1812, and year after year the road was extended until it crossed the Maryland line into southwestern Pennsylvania and went from there to Wheeling on the Ohio River. After a few years it was built on from Wheeling westward across the central part of Ohio and Indiana, and by 1852 it

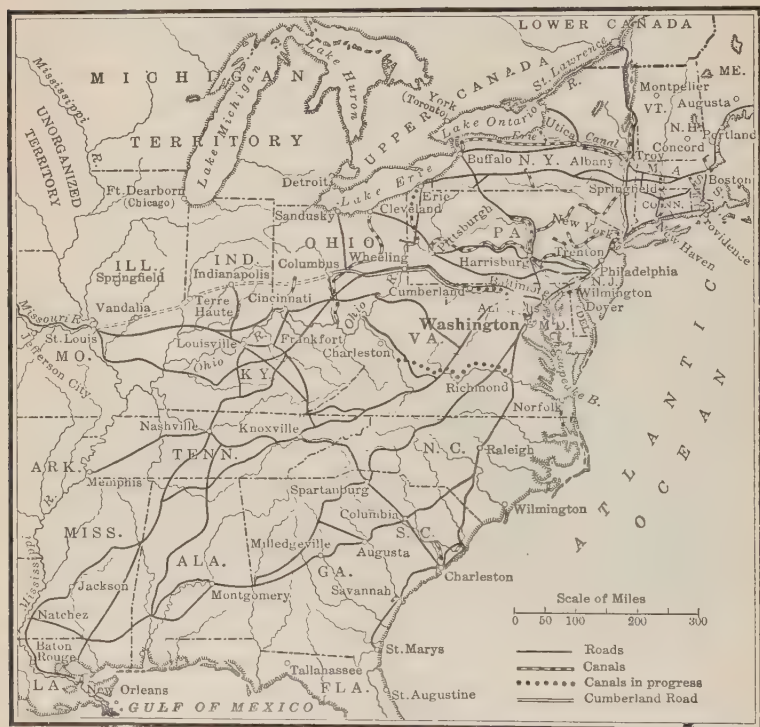


STAGECOACH AND TAVERN

reached central Illinois. Other highways were built by the states to connect with the Cumberland Road. Stagecoach and freight lines were started, and taverns were built. The better facilities for traveling greatly increased the number of travelers, of course. Even as early as 1817 a man who was journeying along the Cumberland Road said that America seemed to be breaking up and moving westward.

2. The second great advance in transportation during the years following the War of 1812 was in *canal-building*. The most famous of these projects was the Erie Canal from

the Hudson River at Albany along the Mohawk valley and westward to Lake Erie, a distance of three hundred and sixty-three miles. It took eight years—from 1817 to 1825—to



ROADS AND CANALS BEFORE 1830

build it, and its opening in the latter year (after many had declared it could not be built) was a great event in our history.¹

The effects of the canal were immediate and amazing. The products which the people of the West were growing could

¹ On October 26, 1825, the entire canal was at last ready for use. A fleet of canal boats drawn by horses started from Buffalo. On the first boat there were two kegs filled with water from Lake Erie. As soon as the fleet started, a cannon was fired, and then another farther along the bank of the canal as soon as the noise was heard. So the message was passed along by a continuous line of cannon the length of the

now be easily carried by water from places near the Great Lakes to New York City, and from there abroad or to Eastern cities on the coast. The cost of carrying goods from Buffalo to New York dropped from \$100 a ton to \$8. Towns began to grow along the canal, such as Syracuse, with its manufacture of salt, and Rochester, with its flour mills. Wheat,



PASSENGER PACKET AND FREIGHT BARGE IN CANAL BASIN AT FOOT OF ALLEGHENY PORTAGE RAILROAD

The inclined plane is visible on the hillside. Reproduced by permission of the Philadelphia Commercial Museum

grain, lumber, and furs began to come East; furniture and manufactured articles began to go West. New York City became more and more important as a trading center.

So great was the success of the Erie Canal that another was built to connect Lake Champlain with the Hudson River,

canal and down the Hudson River to New York. As soon as the sound reached New York the return message was fired from cannon back to Buffalo. When the fleet of boats reached New York the contents of the kegs were poured into the Atlantic Ocean to commemorate the fact that the lakes and the sea had been joined.

and others to connect Lake Erie with the Ohio. In New England, in Pennsylvania, in the Southern states, and in the West, everybody was talking canals. By 1830 nearly four thousand miles of them in various parts of the country were either finished or nearly finished, and seven thousand miles more were being planned.¹

3. The appearance of the *steamboat* on Western waters was the third great advance in the means of transportation.



ON THE ERIE CANAL

From an old engraving

Great as other improvements were, they did not enable the people to move about fast enough from place to place.

¹ The most astonishing plan which was actually put into operation was one which made a connection between Philadelphia and Pittsburgh. A canal could scarcely be built between these two cities because of the high Appalachian Mountains. Canals could be constructed for most of the distance, but how could the mountains be overcome? The answer was found in some inclined planes which were built on the sides of the mountains. A canal boat would be towed along the canals until it came to the first inclined plane, where it would be fastened to a rope pulled by a stationary engine. After being pulled up the first plane, the boat would be carried along a railway until it came to the next plane, and then be pulled up that. After the boat reached the top of the mountain it would be let down by planes on the far side of the range until it reached the canals again. Some of these planes were more than half a mile long. During the first seven months after the system was put into operation, nineteen thousand passengers and thirty-seven thousand tons of goods were carried over it.

The Erie Canal boats went about four miles an hour — the speed of a brisk walk. Flatboats on the Mississippi and Ohio rivers, where the distances ran into many hundreds of miles, were able to make but few trips. It might take a month to go from Pittsburgh to New Orleans. The return trip was much longer ; so long that only one or two round trips could be taken in a year. The labor required to get an awkward boat back up



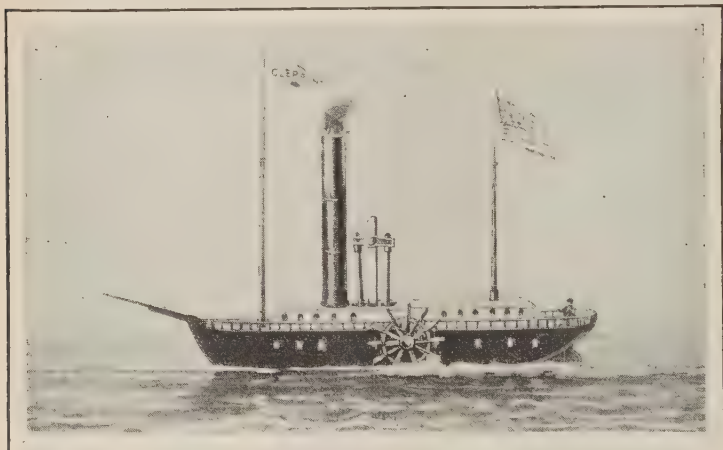
DE WITT CLINTON

ROBERT FULTON

streams by pushing or rowing was enormous. It was during these eventful years, about the time of the War of 1812, that a new invention made a great change in river transportation.

A Connecticut Yankee named John Fitch, who was living in Philadelphia, made a boat in 1785 that would run by steam. By 1789 he had improved it so that it made regular trips on the Delaware River. Other men were working on the same idea, among them Robert R. Livingston and Robert Fulton. In 1807 Fulton succeeded in building the *Clermont*, which went from New York to Albany and back. In 1811 a

steamboat was launched on the Mississippi River. There were great difficulties in running large boats on the Mississippi because of many shallow places, falls, treacherous currents, and sunken trees. Accidents were frequent. In the early days a Mississippi River steamboat did not last more than four years. But the difficulties were gradually overcome.



THE CLERMONT

Robert Fulton's little steamboat which first sailed from New York City to Albany in 1807 — one hundred and fifty miles in thirty-two hours

Boats were made wide and shallow so as to avoid the sand bars. Machinery was improved, and after 1817 steamboats began to be common on the Mississippi.¹

¹ How the *Prairie Belle* tried to keep ahead of a faster boat; how they put a negro on the safety valve; how the furnace was crowded with resin and pine; how the fire burst out on the boat; what a panic there was among the passengers; how the man at the helm, Jim Bludso, kept the boat headed against the bank till everybody got ashore, — these are the points in John Hay's famous little poem "Jim Bludso." It repays reading:

And if ever the *Prairie Belle* took fire, —
 A thousand times he swore,
 He'd hold her nozzle agin the bank
 Till the last soul got ashore.

Then began the rivalry between the flatboat and the steamboat. The steamboat cost a great deal and met with many accidents, but it had speed; the flatboat cost little, was made bigger and bigger until it was as long as one hundred and fifty feet and could carry three hundred tons of freight, but it was slow. Year by year there were more steamboats arriving at New Orleans: 200 in 1820; 1000 in 1830; 1600 in 1840. There were fewer and fewer flatboat arrivals. It is not known just how many arrived in the early years, but there were 1200 as late as 1850. However, it was a losing fight. Slowness could not compete with speed. The *Clermont* on the Hudson in 1807, the *New Orleans* on the Mississippi in 1811, and the *Walk-in-the-Water* on Lake Erie in 1818 marked the beginning of successful steamboat navigation in the United States.

Great were the effects of the steamboat. It enabled people to go from place to place with less cost in time and money.¹ Goods produced in the North, the South, the East, and the West could be more easily exchanged. Southern cotton, sugar, and molasses went up the Mississippi River in exchange for coal, lumber, pork, and flour. Ohio alone shipped two hundred thousand barrels of flour in 1820. Northern cloth and other manufactured products found their way down the Atlantic coast and up the Mississippi, the Ohio, and even the Missouri River.

Where did the Emigrants Settle? Between 1810 and 1840 the Western emigrants went chiefly to ten states. Most of these states were in the Ohio and Mississippi valleys. They were Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Michigan north of the Ohio; Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana south of the Ohio; and Missouri, where the Ohio and Missis-

¹ A journey made by a twelve-year-old boy and his sister from Ohio to Vermont in 1834 illustrates the different means of travel in the United States at that time. From Delaware, Ohio, they went by stage to Fremont; by boat from Fremont to Sandusky; by steamer from Sandusky to Buffalo; by canal boat to Schenectady; by railroad to Saratoga; and by stage from Saratoga to Bennington, Vermont. The boy was Rutherford B. Hayes, who later was president of the United States.

issippi rivers meet.¹ The increase in population in these ten states between 1810 and 1840 was more than five million.

The more you think of these figures the more important they seem. The five-million increase in ten states was more than a million greater than the whole population of the United States when Washington became president. Moreover, when five million people poured into the Middle West, houses had to be built for them to live in. Food had to be grown or carried in to feed them. Tremendous amounts of new land were opened up and tilled. Forests were cut down, bridges built, roads cut through, post offices set up, stores

Date	Population
1790	3,929,214
1810	7,239,881
1830	12,866,020

INCREASE IN POPULATION, 1790-1830

opened, and newspapers started. It is no wonder that the people of the Middle West in those days had to work early and late, that they wore rough clothes and seldom had new ones, that they had to keep up their courage in the face of danger and difficulties, and that they quickly learned how to take care of themselves. They had to be thrifty, hard-working, and courageous, or they never would have survived.

¹ Mississippi and Alabama were slightly enlarged and a new territory was obtained by a treaty with Spain in 1819. Since the close of the Revolution the southern boundary of the United States had been the thirty-first parallel of north latitude from the Mississippi eastward most of the way to the Atlantic. South from this boundary to the Gulf of Mexico the territory was owned by Spain and was called Florida. Spain was not a good neighbor at this time. She did not care much for Florida and did not keep the Indians there under control. The Indians went across the border into Mississippi, Alabama, and Georgia and did much damage, sometimes stealing property and murdering citizens. In 1810 and 1813 the United States seized parts of Florida near the Mississippi. Later, in 1819, a treaty was made with Spain by which the latter gave up all claims to land east of the Mississippi, and the United States paid \$5,000,000. Mississippi and Alabama were extended to the Gulf of Mexico, and Florida was set up as separate territory. Andrew Jackson, the hero of New Orleans, was the first governor of the territory.

Where the New Westerners came from and the Ideas they brought with them. Most of the people who migrated to the West between 1810 and 1840 came from the towns and farms in the East, but there was at the same time a considerable immigration into the United States from European countries. Some of the new immigrants, of course, went West. Probably more of them settled in the East and took the places of native Americans who were moving into the Ohio and Mississippi valleys. It is not possible to tell exactly how many Europeans came over during those years, for no complete account was kept. A few things are known, however:

After the European war against Napoleon, which ended during our War of 1812, the countries of Europe were in great distress. Taxes were high, food was scarce, and, since the big armies were being disbanded, many former soldiers were looking for work. These things caused many people to turn toward America, where prosperity was greater.

It is known that English, Irish, and German immigrants were coming over after the War of 1812. Many of these were excellent farmers and mechanics and were very much needed in America.

When the people from the East settled in the West, they naturally carried with them the beliefs which they had held in the old part of the country. If they had churches and schools in the East, they wanted churches and schools in the West. If the New Englander went to Ohio, Indiana, or Illinois, he carried with him the idea of the town meeting as a means of government.¹ Similarly, the Southerner who was accustomed to having his farm work done for him by black men — his slaves — wished to follow the same custom in the West.

¹ If you ever ride through northern New England, you may chance upon what is called an "abandoned farm." Some of these farms were abandoned a century ago or half a century ago by New Englanders who went West. You can still discover the remains of the cellar. Many of these farms are now being occupied again, because the automobile makes them accessible.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Highways and canals were called internal improvements. The Middle West wanted the government to make many such improvements, and the states along the Atlantic seaboard sometimes opposed. Explain why each section took the stand that it did.

2. Give a floor talk of three minutes on each of these topics :

a. The National Road.

b. The Effects of the Erie Canal on the West.

c. Taking a Canal Boat over the Allegheny Mountains.

d. The Rivalry between the Flatboat and the Steamboat.

e. Different Means of Travel in the United States in 1830.

f. The Effects of the Steamboat on the West.

3. Some of the foreigners in the United States during John Adams's administration caused a great deal of trouble. Show why the government did not pass a law forbidding all foreigners to come into the country. May as many come now as desire to do so (see page 649)?

4. Read *The Making of America*, by Grace Vollintine, chaps. x-xiii. They all deal with westward expansion. Chapter xii deals with highways, canals, and steamboats.

5. Good chapters on "The Erie Canal" and "The National Road" are found in *From Trail to Railway through the Appalachians*, by A. P. Brigham. You will enjoy reading them.

6. Now is the time to read *The Story of Robert Fulton*, by Inez N. McFee.

UNIT IV. THE BEGINNINGS OF THE FACTORY SYSTEM IN THE UNITED STATES

A few people still living can dimly remember seeing their grandmothers making cloth with a simple piece of machinery called a hand loom. Many more people have old spinning-wheels and looms in their attics or have seen them in museums. These ancient pieces of machinery recall the day when each household made its own clothing. In 1815, when the War of 1812 came to an end, most people in the United

States wore "homemade" clothes. In 1860, only forty-five years later, people bought these things from stores, which in turn bought them from factories. By 1860 almost nobody made yarn or cloth at home. The change from manufacturing these in the home to making them in factories is an important part of American history. To understand the change, it is necessary to know some things that happened in England between 1760 and 1800.¹

1. HOW THE FACTORY SYSTEM BEGAN IN THE UNITED STATES

The Industrial Revolution in England. Between 1760 and 1800 some Englishmen invented machinery which greatly changed the making of yarn and cloth. In the first place, James Hargreaves invented a machine which would make, or "spin," eight threads at once. He named it the "spinning jenny" in honor of his wife, Jenny Hargreaves. In the course of years other people improved the spinning jenny so that twenty threads could be spun at once, and machines were made that could go faster and faster and do the work better and better. And then Edmund Cartwright invented a loom which ran by horse power, or by water power where swiftly flowing streams were available. Last of all, James Watt invented a steam engine that could be attached to the loom and do the work still more quickly. All these things, which can be so soon told, took years to accomplish. Improvements were made year after year, each inventive workman trying to change his machine so as to make it work faster and produce better thread or better cloth. By 1800 the new methods of making cloth were in full swing in England, and the old spinning-wheel and hand loom were beginning to disappear into the attic.

¹ Our ancestors used to speak of "homemade" clothes and of "boughten," or factory-made, clothes.

Manufacturing in the United States before 1815. Manufacturing slowly developed in the United States long before the War of 1812. Coal was mined in Virginia, and there were successful iron-making companies in Richmond. Manufacturing was beginning on a small scale in the West. Pittsburgh was already becoming a center of industry; even before the War of 1812 it was known as a smoky city.

Still greater progress had been made in New England, New York, New Jersey, and western Pennsylvania. In fact, a list of articles to be found in a well-stocked store in the East at the time of the War of 1812 shows that a wide range of goods were manufactured in the United States. A great part of these, however, were made by the people in their homes. The women and girls busied themselves in their spare time and in the evening with spinning, weaving, and making candles, as the women of England did. The men attended to the heavy work of the farm, and during the less busy seasons they worked in wood or iron, making such things as nails, barrels, shingles, or wagon parts.

Both before the War of 1812 and for a long time afterwards, every little settlement had its small shops in which leather was tanned or horseshoes or wagons or harness were made. Usually these shops were placed alongside a waterfall or a swiftly flowing stream, where the force of the water could be used to turn the machinery. The remains of these early shops may still be seen near villages which have not grown so fast as to cover them up. Generally the workman who ran the shop was paid by his customers in wool or grain or anything the farmer had to offer.¹ Money was scarce, and most people saw very little of it.

¹ About this time a ten-year-old boy named John D. Long was keeping a diary in a small town in Maine. He noted that the town contained two hundred and twenty-five people, and that there were six little shops, each of them run by water. Two of them made wagons, one made furniture, one made kegs, one ground grain, and one made soap. This same boy later became governor of Massachusetts.

The Yankee¹ Peddler. Most people, however, did not live in towns or even near them. They lived on scattered farms, where neighbors were few and distant. Manufactured articles were brought to these people by the old-fashioned peddler. Most of the peddlers have long since gone out of business, but a few of them may still be seen in one part of the country or another.

The peddler — he was most often a Yankee (that is, a New Englander) — fitted himself out with a horse and wagon and a box of supplies of tinware, pins and needles, scissors and buttons, hats, shoes and clocks. Then he drove on from farm to farm, stopping at every farmhouse to tell what news he had picked up and to sell his wares to the housekeeper. You could have seen him on Cape Cod, near Lake Erie, at Detroit, or in Kentucky. Perhaps he would go far South, to Charleston or Savannah, selling his goods and finally his horse and cart, and then he would return to some New England town to begin all over again.²

Samuel Slater's Cotton Mill. While American manufactures were growing in the home and spreading out into the little shops, the English were inventing the spinning jenny, the power loom, and other machines which have been mentioned. A few of these ideas were used in the United States, but not much was known about the machinery until Samuel Slater came from England in 1789.

It was against English law to take the new invention out of the country, but Slater read in an American newspaper that prizes were being offered in the United States for the invention of new machinery. He studied the construction of the

¹ The word "Yankee" is a curious word. A hundred years ago it meant a New Englander. From the time of the Civil War the people of the South have spoken of *all* Northerners as Yankees.

² Many of these peddlers made considerable fortunes for those days. One of them even made money enough to found a thriving scientific college in Worcester, Massachusetts. This was John Boynton.

machines until he could make them from memory, and then he came over. In 1790 he built a cotton mill at Pawtucket, Rhode Island, where there was the water power necessary to run the machinery. Slater's mill was successful. Others imitated him; and from that time down to the present day the region around Pawtucket has had factories for the

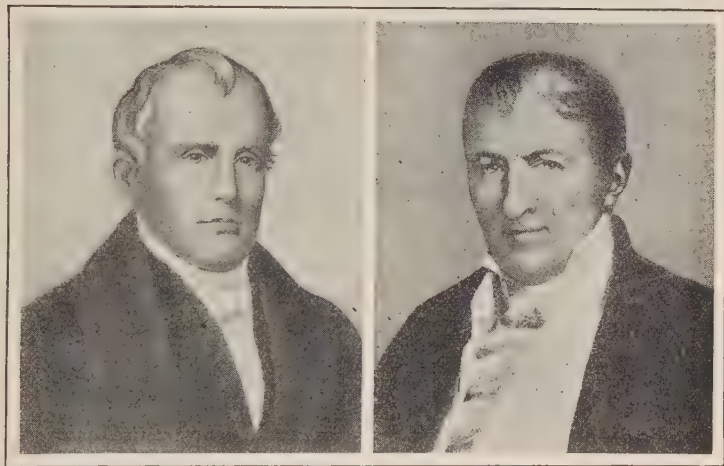


FIRST COTTON MILL IN AMERICA, PAWTUCKET

production of cotton goods, and 1790 is remembered as the birth-year of the factory system in the United States.

Eli Whitney's Cotton Gin. The use of all this machinery in England and America increased the demand for cotton. Plenty of it could be grown in the South, but it took so long to pick out the seeds by hand that cotton-growers could not keep up with the machines. Then Eli Whitney, a Yankee school-teacher in Georgia, solved the difficulty. In 1793 he invented a small machine which contained some circular saws. The saws pulled the fibers of the cotton through a wire

grating the openings of which were large enough for the fibers to go through but too small for the seeds. As soon as the new machine (which was known as a "cotton gin") was in operation, one man, using a horse to run the machine, could clean the seeds from more cotton than three hundred men could by hand. The people of the South immediately began to plant cotton for the mills of England and New England.



SAMUEL SLATER

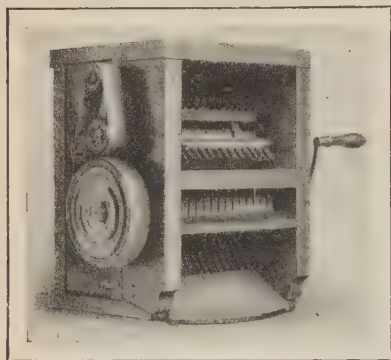
ELI WHITNEY

Pioneers in the establishment of the factory system in the United States

New land was cleared, people began to spread out to the west, and more and more slaves were brought into the Southern states to work in the cotton fields.

Effect of Jefferson's Embargo and the War of 1812 on American Cotton Manufacture. Side by side with the increase in American cotton production went a larger number of American cotton factories. For example, another mill was built in Rhode Island soon after Slater started his. Then two were built in Massachusetts, and by 1807 there were fifteen in New England.

Then came the embargo and the War of 1812, which prevented our ships from bringing cotton goods over from England. Furthermore, as soon as the war was over, Congress



THE COTTON GIN, INVENTED BY
ELI WHITNEY

placed a high tariff on manufactured articles, and this tended to keep them out of the United States. If we were to have cotton and other manufactured goods, therefore, we must make most of them ourselves. The New Englanders, who had more wealth than people in other parts of the country, used their money to build factories and to make cotton cloth

and many other kinds of manufactured things. Thus began the factory towns and villages of New England, which have continued to grow in size up to our own time.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. A new kind of revolution is mentioned in the foregoing discussion. Explain the meaning and the significance of the three revolutions that you have read about in this book. They are the American Revolution, the French Revolution, and the Industrial Revolution.

2. Give a floor talk of two or three minutes on the following:

- a. Samuel Slater and the Year 1790.
- b. How Goods were sold in the Eighteen-Twenties.
- c. Eli Whitney and the Year 1793.
- d. James Hargreaves.
- e. Edmund Cartwright.
- f. James Watt.

3. Read "How Cotton became King of Clothing" and "The Coming of the Factory to America" in E. C. Brooks's *Story of Cotton and the Development of the Cotton States*, chaps. vi, vii.

4. Between 1790 and 1810 much manufacturing was done in the home. If you want to know how much, read R. M. Tryon's *Household Manufactures in the United States*, chaps. iv, v.

5. Read "The Rise of Cotton" in A. H. Sanford's *Story of Agriculture in the United States*, chap. xi.

6. Samuel Slater on leaving England said, "The authorities can search my pockets and my baggage, but they cannot search my head." Explain what he meant.

2. THE EARLY FACTORIES AND FACTORY TOWNS

Lowell's Factory and the Power Loom. In 1815, just after the War of 1812 came to an end, Francis C. Lowell started a mill at Waltham, Massachusetts, in which the whole process of making cloth was carried on by water power.

The women and girls who worked at home on the spinning-wheels and hand looms could not compete with the factory and the power looms, of course. One kind of cotton cloth dropped in price from forty-two cents a yard to seven and a half cents between 1815 and 1830, so that more and more people began to buy factory-made goods.

Most people, however, because they lived far away from towns and villages and because the visits of the peddlers were few and far between, continued to make their goods at home. As time went on, however, people in the country made fewer and fewer things at home and bought more and more things at the stores. The machinery in the factories was improved by new inventions year after year. Horse power gave way to water power, and water power gave way to steam. Factory-made goods got cheaper as time went on, and at last the spinning-wheel and the hand loom and other pieces of house-

hold machinery went into the attic and the museum to stay, as they had done in England.¹

How the Factory Towns Grew. As soon as a factory was established, houses had to be built near it for the workmen to live in. Then grocery stores and a post office and a church would be necessary, and a school for the children. Young people from the country round about began to leave the farms and go to the factory towns to work. Frequently whole families would go. The father and the children would all work in the mills, while the mother kept house and prepared

Date	Value of Cotton in dollars
1820	4,834,157
1830	22,534,815
Date	Value of Wool in dollars
1820	4,413,068
1830	14,528,166

INCREASE IN THE VALUE OF COTTON AND WOOLEN MANUFACTURES, 1820-1830

the meals. Thus grew up such cities as Manchester in New Hampshire; Lowell, Lynn, and Fall River in Massachusetts; Pawtucket in Rhode Island; Meriden in Connecticut; and Paterson and Newark in New Jersey. The history of such a city as Lowell, Massachusetts, shows how the manufacturing cities began and grew. Some men who had been in business with Francis C. Lowell when he started his mill in Waltham

¹ It will be remembered that during colonial days there were a great many indentured servants, who served masters for a term of years to pay for the cost of their voyage to America. We know that there are no indentured servants now. This practice ended when the factory system was being established, just after the War of 1812.

The establishment and growth of factories for manufacturing cotton cloth indicates what was going on in other industries. Mills for making woolen cloth and linen were started; more and more iron goods were made, as well as leather, soap, candles, glass, and other goods. Hard, or anthracite, coal was mined in 1803; but nobody could make it burn, and it was sometimes called stone coal. In 1812 iron grates were manufactured in which the coal would burn if the draft was strong enough. Wood, however, was so common in the United States that for many years after that time most people used it for fuel.

bought land around a waterfall on the Merrimack River and founded a settlement which they named Lowell. They started a mill, sold water power and mill sites to other people, and soon Lowell was a fast-growing city. In 1820 it had a few hundred people, in 1840 it had twenty thousand, and in 1920 it had one hundred and thirteen thousand. Other factory towns grew in the same way.

Good and Bad Sides of Early Factories and Factory Towns. It is easy to see some of the advantages which the early factories gave to our ancestors. Clothing, tools, glass, paper, and household articles became cheaper, and people could have more and more of them.

On the other hand, the factories gave rise to many difficulties, some of which still trouble us:

The early factories were badly ventilated, poorly lighted, and dangerous to health. Whirling machinery was unguarded, so that workmen frequently had fingers or arms cut off.

A majority of the employees were women and children, even children from four to ten years of age being frequently put to work in the mills.

The hours of work were from twelve to fourteen each day. Much of this was by candle or whale-oil lamp and was harmful to the eyes of the workers. Such long hours in badly lighted and poorly ventilated factories were especially dangerous for the women and children.

The houses in which the factory workers lived were generally as harmful as the factories themselves. Moreover, since the causes of many diseases were not understood, epidemics used to sweep through the crowded towns. Great numbers of people died merely because no one knew how to prevent diseases or to stop their spreading. Smallpox was the most dreaded of these.

Growth and Spread of the Factory System. We sometimes get the impression that the factory system sprang into existence

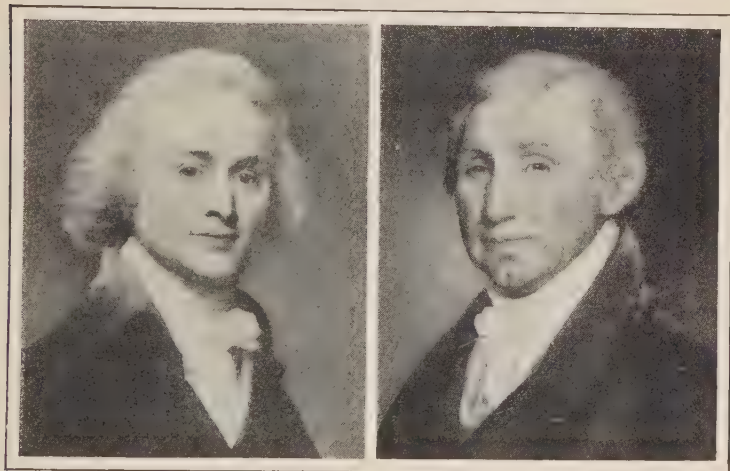
in a year or so. This is not the case. It took years of experimenting and invention to make such machines as Hargreaves and Cartwright built. It took many years also to get factories started in America. Some failed; some succeeded. From 1790 to 1860 was seventy years, a fairly long lifetime. The factory system was growing all that time and spreading out all over the country. Nevertheless, the greater number of families lived on the farms and in small settlements even so late as 1860. In 1860 most people in the West and South might never have seen a factory, although they certainly would have used plenty of factory-made goods; most people in the states from Pennsylvania to Maine would have seen factories, because they were more common in that section.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Account for the fact that by 1830 many of the spinning-wheels and hand looms had gone into the attic or museum to stay.
2. Show to what extent the bad sides of the early factories and factory cities have been corrected.
3. Account for the fact that most of the early factories were located in the New England or middle Atlantic states.
4. Show why the growth of the factory system in the United States was so slight between 1790 and 1812.
5. You will enjoy reading "How the Cities Looked," in J. T. Faris's *When America was Young*, chap. viii.
6. Study the diagram on page 316. How can you account for the great change in cotton production between 1820 and 1830? Can you tell of any men and inventions that help to explain it?
7. Jefferson believed that America would be happier if the people remained on the farms and tilled the soil than it would be if the people moved to the cities and built factories. What can be said for or against this opinion?
8. Can any one of the pictures on pages 312 and 313 be a photograph? If so, why?

UNIT V. PROBLEMS AT HOME AND ABROAD DURING THE ADMINISTRATIONS OF JAMES MONROE AND JOHN QUINCY ADAMS

James Monroe was president from 1817 to 1825, and John Quincy Adams from 1825 to 1829.¹ During these twelve years the West was rapidly growing, and many factories and factory



JOHN QUINCY ADAMS

JAMES MONROE

towns were being started. In addition, three great problems faced the country. One of them was the slavery question. Another was the troublesome question of keeping out of European wars. The third question arose from a difference of opinion about how to run the United States government. Each of the three is important.

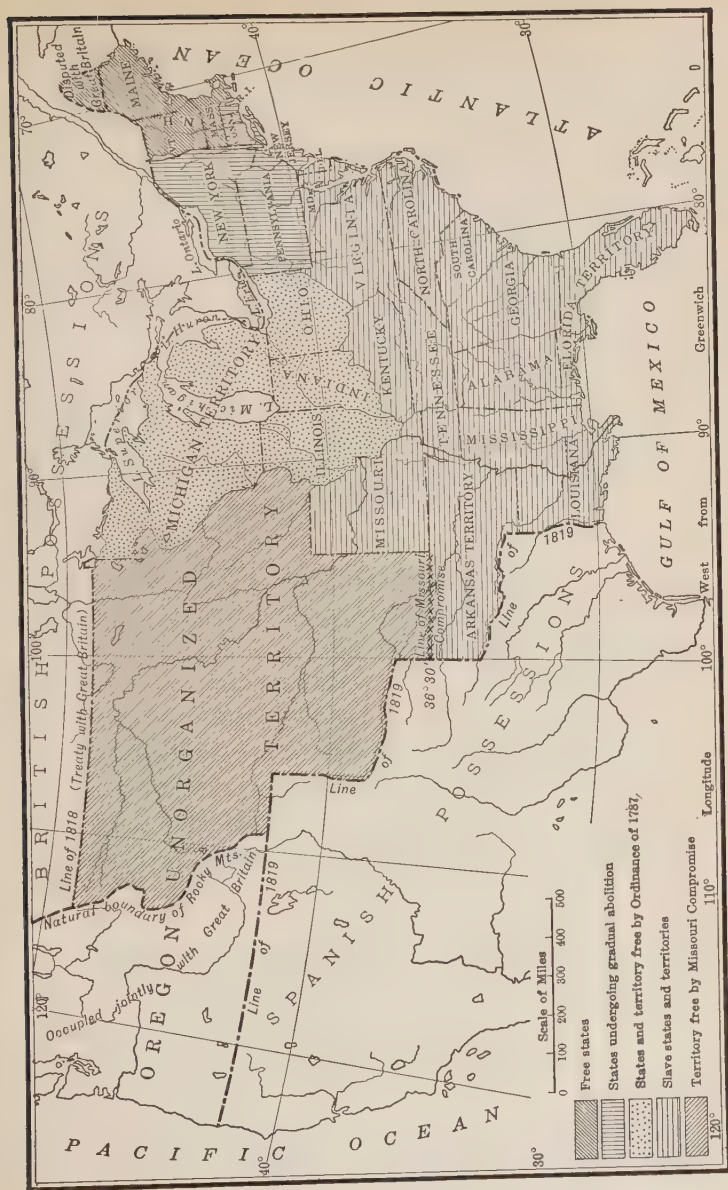
¹ President James Monroe was another Virginian. He was born in 1758 and died in 1831. How do you explain the fact that four of the first five presidents were Virginians? The president after Monroe was John Quincy Adams, son of John Adams. This is the only case in our history where both father and son have been president. John Quincy Adams was born in Massachusetts in 1767 and died in 1848.

1. WHAT TO DO ABOUT SLAVERY

Differences of Opinion in North and South. The slavery question grew out of a difference of opinion between the North and the South. In the North the states had generally given up slavery. A favorite method was to pass a law providing that all negroes should be free by the time they reached a certain age, say twenty-five years. In the states north of the Ohio River — Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Michigan — slavery was forbidden by the Northwest Ordinance (p. 223). There were fewer negroes in the North than in the South. They were not profitable in the North as farm hands, and so it was easier to free them. A few people in the North hated slavery very much; probably most people did not care greatly whether the South kept slaves or not.

In the South the leaders of Revolutionary times, such as Washington, Jefferson, Patrick Henry, and Madison, opposed slavery. But the invention of the cotton gin, the great demand for cotton for the mills of England and New England, and the spreading of cotton culture around the Appalachian Mountains and into the Mississippi Valley created a great demand for slaves. Slaves could work profitably in the cotton fields, where the labor was simpler than on a Northern farm. Many Southern people wished to get rid of their slaves, but they were troubled by these questions: If all these slaves are freed, what will become of them? Can they earn a living? Will they work without being forced to? Will they try to kill their former owners? It seemed to the South that the dangers and disadvantages of slavery would be lessened if the slaves were spread out more — spread out into the Mississippi Valley and the West, instead of being packed together on the plantations of the Atlantic coast.

The South was also discouraged by the fact that the North was rapidly getting a greater population. Its greater popula-



FREE AND SLAVE STATES AND TERRITORIES IN 1821

tion gave it more members in the House of Representatives; hence laws against slavery stood a good chance of passing the House. In the Senate, however, where every state had two members regardless of its population, the South was as strong as the North. By 1818 there were twenty-two states in the Union — eleven free states and eleven states where slaves were held. Hence, if any law against slavery passed the House of Representatives, it could be stopped by the Senate. Because of this fact there existed what is now known as "the balance in Congress."

The Peculiar Case of Missouri. Then came the settlement of Missouri. Missouri, being opposite the mouth of the Ohio River, seemed to be neither in the North nor in the South. Illinois was north of the river and seemed to belong to the free states; Kentucky was below the river and seemed to belong to the slave states; but Missouri was neither above nor below. To which side should it belong when it became a state? Congress had to answer.

In 1819 Missouri asked to be admitted *as a slave state*. The House of Representatives was willing to admit it *as a free state*, but not otherwise; the Senate was willing to admit it as a slave state. It happened that Maine, which had always before been a part of Massachusetts, was at this time asking for permission to enter as a separate state. A bargain, or "compromise," was therefore arranged as follows:

Missouri came in as a slave state.

Maine came in as a free state, thus keeping the balance in the Senate between free states and slave states.

It was agreed that no more slave states should be admitted north of the southern boundary of Missouri and east of the Rocky Mountains.¹

¹ The southern boundary of Missouri was at 36° 30' north latitude, and this line was to be extended to the Rocky Mountains. The mountains had been the western boundary of the United States ever since the Louisiana Purchase, in 1803. North of this line there should be no more slave states.

The importance of the Missouri case would be difficult to overstate. What to do about Missouri was discussed all over the country, and a great deal of bitterness was aroused. A Georgia congressman declared that the quarrel had kindled a fire which only seas of blood could put out. Jefferson said it was like a fire-alarm bell in the night. He feared that the quarrel over slavery would break out again and again. Clay thought that the Union might break up over it.

As soon as the matter was settled, however, people poured all the faster into Missouri, taking up the land in the fertile river valleys. In the first ten years after 1820 seventy-four thousand came in, in the next ten years two hundred and forty-three thousand entered, and for many years afterwards Missouri continued to grow at a rapid rate.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. On an outline map of the United States show the free and slave states in 1821, the line of $36^{\circ}30'$ north latitude, and the territory made free by it. Show also who owned the territory of the present continental United States not included in what you have indicated.

2. Take the side of a Northerner in 1821 and speak against the extension of slavery; or, if you prefer, take the side of a Southerner and speak for the extension of slavery.

3. Show what is meant by "the balance in Congress" and the effect of this balance on legislation for or against the extension of slavery.

4. "Changing Conditions and Opinions with Respect to Slavery." Discuss in a brief floor talk.

2. HOW TO CONDUCT DANGEROUS FOREIGN AFFAIRS

Dangers from Europe. If we remember what the people were thinking about just before the War of 1812 and just after it, we shall see what a great change had come about. Before the war the great question was, What shall we do about the

wrongs being done to the United States by England and France? Shall we fight England or France, or both? After the war the people turned their attention to building towns and starting factories; to roads, canals, and steamboats; to agriculture and tariffs; and to opening the lands west of the Appalachian Mountains.

The danger from Europe, however, suddenly appeared again during Monroe's second term as president, which began in 1821.¹

In thinking of any danger from Europe it is necessary to keep two things in mind:

The United States was a growing nation, and European countries had possessions all around it. France had owned Louisiana, and the United States had purchased it in 1803. Great Britain owned Canada, and we had only recently had a war with her. Spain owned all the territory south and southwest of the United States, and the United States had purchased Florida in 1819. Hence the United States seemed to be dragged into connections with European countries.

On the other hand, both Washington and Jefferson had constantly advised the country to keep away from European connections as much as possible.

Trouble in South America and Danger from Russia. Shortly after the War of 1812 the possessions of Spain south of the United States began to revolt. Many of them started independent republics like that which the United States had set up in 1776. Chile, Peru, Mexico, and Brazil were some of them. As soon as this happened, several of the European countries, France among them, formed a group called the Holy Alliance. Among other things, the Alliance seemed

¹ The second time that Monroe was elected he was the only candidate. One elector, however, voted for John Quincy Adams and thus prevented Monroe from resembling Washington in being unanimously chosen. The years about 1820 are sometimes called the Era of Good Feeling, because there was no great political contest in that year.

ready to help in putting down the South American revolutions and giving the colonies back to Spain. England opposed this, because she was afraid her enemy, France, was getting too much power over Spain. What might happen to the United States, thought Monroe, if the European powers should come over to the Americas with armies and navies and force the Spanish colonies to go back to Spain? Would the independence of the United States be in danger?

At the same time Russia was claiming more and more territory on that part of the Pacific coast which we know as Alaska. She even had trading stations on the coast of what is now California. With Great Britain on the north in Canada, with Russia on the northwest, and with Spain on the southwest, what would be the position of the United States? Monroe at once took up the matter with Russia, and that nation agreed not to go farther south than what is now Alaska.

Monroe's Message of 1823. But the danger from Europe was not so easily disposed of. England was ready to join the United States in opposing the Holy Alliance, but John Quincy Adams, the Secretary of State, thought that the United States in alliance with England would be like a little rowboat in the wake of a great man-of-war. He urged Monroe to make a statement to the world explaining our position. Monroe took the advice, and in 1823 sent a message to Congress. The points which he made are listed below. They are known as the "Monroe Doctrine."

The European countries ought not to start any new colonies in North or South America.

The European countries ought not to interfere with the newly established South American republics.

The United States ought not to interfere in the affairs of European countries.

The European colonies already in North and South America ought not to grow any larger.

The European countries soon knew what Monroe had written to Congress, for his message was made public. In the face of Monroe's statement and the opposition of England to the Holy Alliance, the Alliance stopped its program. Thereafter North and South America were left alone under the leadership of the United States.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Read "James Monroe" in *Our Presidents*, by James Morgan, pp. 40-46.

2. Make a list of and locate on a map the countries that revolted from European control during the eighteen-twenties.

3. Point out the chief dangers to the growth, prosperity, and freedom of the United States in the eighteen-twenties.

4. Show why the Holy Alliance desired to put down the South American revolution.

5. Discuss in a floor talk of three minutes the importance and probable consequence of President Monroe's message of 1823.

3. HOW TO SETTLE THE POLITICAL QUARREL BETWEEN THE EAST AND THE WEST

The West demands a President. While President Monroe and John Quincy Adams were working out the Monroe Doctrine a political quarrel was brewing. Including Monroe there had been five presidents up to 1824, who had served altogether thirty-six years. Four of the five had been natives of Virginia: Washington, Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe. They had served eight years each. The second president, John Adams, was from Massachusetts and had served four years. These five men differed from one another in many respects, but all were dignified, all were trained in government and politics, and all were from the eastern coast. The West now began to wish for more power in the government. Why should all the presidents come from Virginia and Massa-

chusetts? Why should all the presidents be men who had been in politics all their lives? Why not have some fresh blood — somebody who would represent the common people instead of the wealthier classes, and especially somebody from the new parts of the country? The West had two favorites to suggest, the South had one, and New England had one. The two from the West were (1) Andrew Jackson, the hero of the battle of New Orleans, the Indian fighter, and popular Tennessee frontiersman; (2) Henry Clay, the eloquent Kentuckian, enormously popular, one of the "war hawks" of the War of 1812, and an experienced statesman.

The South had William H. Crawford, who understood politics thoroughly and had been in Monroe's cabinet.

New England had John Quincy Adams of Massachusetts, the son of the second president. Adams was an excellent scholar, experienced in managing foreign affairs, politics, and government. Adams most resembled the early presidents; Jackson least resembled them. Each had many friends who wished to see their favorite made president.

Jackson and Adams. When the votes were counted in the election of 1824 it was discovered that no man had more than half the votes in the Electoral College. The Constitution says that in such cases the House of Representatives shall choose the president from among the three men who have the most votes.¹

Jackson, Adams, and Crawford were the three. Clay was the fourth and could not be chosen, but he had many friends in the House of Representatives whom he could influence to vote for Jackson or Adams or Crawford. About this time Crawford became so ill that it was doubtful whether he could serve, and so Clay felt that he must choose between Jackson and Adams. He let his friends know that he favored Adams, and as his friends were strong enough to control the vote, the

¹ See the Twelfth Amendment, Appendix B.

House chose Adams for president. The Westerners were not pleased at another president from Massachusetts. Jackson believed that he had been cheated. He and his friends said that Adams had agreed to make Clay the Secretary of State if Clay would help Adams to get the presidency. Jackson was mistaken: Adams was perfectly honest; but Jackson did not know the facts then as well as we do now, and he looked on Adams and Clay as tricky and dishonest, especially after Adams actually did appoint Clay as Secretary of State.

Adams as President.¹ Adams was president from 1825 to 1829. Little was done during these years. In the first place, Adams and Congress could not agree. *Adams wished to build more roads and canals* over all the country, but he could not get the consent of Congress. Some thought that the Constitution did not permit such a program; others thought that the cost would be too great. The Eastern states in many cases were already standing the cost of building their own roads and canals and did not wish to pay for any more. Hence nothing came of the project to have roads and canals built on a nation-wide scale by the Federal government.

There was also much *disagreement over the tariff*. Finally a new tariff law was passed in 1828 which was so unpopular in both the North and the South that it was called the Tariff of Abominations. The North wanted a high tariff to protect its growing manufactures; the South wanted a low one so that it could get manufactured articles from abroad cheaply. The

¹ John Quincy Adams was born in Massachusetts, in 1767, the son of John Adams. When he was eleven years of age his father went to France to represent the United States, taking the young lad with him. At that time the boy began keeping a diary in which he wrote an account of all he saw and heard. With slight breaks he kept the diary for seventy years, until his death in 1848. Many years later it was published in twelve volumes, and gave a great deal of information in regard to American history. Before the campaign of 1824 Adams had been a student in Harvard College; had been minister to Holland, Germany, Russia, and England; had served in the Massachusetts senate and in the United States Senate; had helped to arrange the treaty closing the War of 1812; and had been Monroe's Secretary of State.

Tariff of Abominations did not accomplish either of these things satisfactorily. The real purpose of the men in Congress who passed it seems to have been to make Adams disliked.

Another cause of trouble was the question *Who shall have the government jobs?* Adams thought that the best men should be appointed to offices in Washington whether they were his friends or his enemies. He kept in office men who were secretly working to prevent his being a successful president, since he thought that it was not right for a president to increase his chance of reelection by putting political enemies out of their positions.¹

The friends of Jackson in reality wished to have Adams fail so that the people would elect their man president in 1828.

Jackson and 1828. All during the presidency of Adams, General Jackson believed that he had been cheated out of a victory. His friends determined to see that he was elected when Adams's term of four years was over. When 1828 came around, the state legislatures of the West began nominating Jackson, and the state legislatures of New England began nominating Adams. Each of the candidates was charged by his enemies with being a monstrously wicked person.

When the vote was taken in November, 1828, it was found that only New England, New Jersey, and Delaware, with parts of New York and Maryland, were for Adams. The whole South and West were for Jackson.² There was great

¹ In 1824-1825 Lafayette made a visit to America as the guest of the United States. He visited the battlefields where he had fought. He went to the tomb of Washington. He heard Daniel Webster give the address at Charlestown in 1825, when the cornerstone of the Bunker Hill Monument was laid, fifty years after the famous battle. When he returned to France he was carried in the *Brandywine*, a vessel named after the battle near Philadelphia in which he had fought. He died in 1834.

² Jackson was such an extraordinary man that he is well worth knowing about. He was born in 1767, near the boundary between North and South Carolina. There is a dispute as to whether his birthplace was really in one state or the other. His people were poor, and his early life was a hard struggle. As a boy, and later

rejoicing among the friends of the general. They declared that he had been right about the Adams charge. They believed he would end the control of the government by the East and by the line of Virginia and Massachusetts presidents. Instead of an aristocratic Washington politician, they said, a plain man of the West would now handle the reins of government.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Make a table of the presidents before 1829. Show the time covered by the administration of each, the party to which each belonged, the home state of each president, and three outstanding events in each administration. (See Appendix C.)

2. Note from your table of presidents that the president and the vice president never came from the same state. Explain this fact.

3. Make a speech of three minutes in which you tell why you would have supported Jackson or Crawford or John Quincy Adams or Henry Clay for the office of the presidency in 1824.

4. In 1824 there were three well-marked sections in the United States: the East, the West, and the South. Compare and contrast these sections as to the extent of territory, attitude toward slavery, desires regarding a tariff, and general manner of living.

5. We sometimes hear the expression "Jacksonian democracy." Explain its meaning.

6. Speak briefly on the topic "The Troubles of the John Quincy Adams Administration."

7. Read what James Morgan says about John Quincy Adams in his book *Our Presidents*, pp. 47-56.

as well, he had a violent temper and was always in fights. He became a lawyer, and was one of those immigrants to Tennessee whom we have already noted. He was a judge in a Tennessee court, where his decisions were listened to rather because they were just than because he knew much law. Later he was in the House of Representatives at Washington for a time, but he took little or no part in the actual operation of the government. The War of 1812, and especially the victory at New Orleans and the battles against the Indians, made his great reputation. Jackson had a strong will. He generally did what he started out to do, he was very fond of his friends, he hated his enemies bitterly, he was extraordinarily brave and "gritty," and he had good judgment.

BEFORE LEAVING DIVISION FIVE

- I. Debate one or more of the following subjects
 1. *Resolved*, That the national capital should have been located at Philadelphia.
 2. *Resolved*, That the War of 1812 could have been avoided.
 3. *Resolved*, That the United States should have joined England in 1811 in her war against Napoleon.
 4. *Resolved*, That Hamilton was right in his contention that a national debt was a good thing for a country.
 5. *Resolved*, That Jefferson's policies and beliefs were safer guides for the new nation than those of Hamilton.
 6. *Resolved*, That John Quincy Adams's services to his country were greater than those of his father, John Adams.
- II. Prepare the following for your notebook :
 1. A *Hall of Fame* for Division Five. Let the class determine by a majority vote the names for the *Hall*. Each member of the class should first make a list and be ready to defend each name on his list.
 2. A statement of about two hundred words in length concerning each of the following : Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, Hamilton, Gallatin, Eli Whitney, Robert Fulton, Samuel Slater.
 3. A list of twelve important dates between 1789 and 1829, and the event connected with each. Let each member of the class first make a list of twelve. The list for the notebook can be determined through class discussion.
 4. A chart or table of the presidents before 1829. Show on this chart the presidents in order, the dates of each administration, the home state, the vice president, and two important events.
 5. A map, as follows :
 - a. Title : Continental United States in 1825.
 - b. Use an outline map of the present United States.
 - c. Show the twenty-four states, all the physical features and cities mentioned in this division of your text, and the territory not a part of the United States in 1825.

- d.* Indicate in some way the original thirteen colonies, the slave states and the free states, the Northwest Territory, the Louisiana Purchase, the Florida Purchase, and the free territory north of 36° 30' north latitude.

III. Be able to :

1. Tell a brief, straightforward story of each of the five Units of Division Five :
 - a.* The New Nation in the Hands of Washington, Hamilton, and John Adams.
 - b.* The Nation under the Leadership of Jefferson, Madison, and Gallatin.
 - c.* America turning Westward.
 - d.* The Beginnings of the Factory System in the United States.
 - e.* Problems at Home and Abroad during the Administrations of James Monroe and John Quincy Adams.
2. Identify in a sentence or two John Adams, John Quincy Adams, Andrew Jackson, Henry Clay, John Jay, Admiral Perry, William Henry Harrison, Genêt, Captain James Lawrence, General William Hull, Captain Isaac Hull, William H. Crawford, Anthony Wayne, John Marshall, Aaron Burr, Robert Livingston, Francis C. Lowell, Tecumseh, James Robertson, Daniel Boone, Winfield Scott.
3. Explain the importance in American history of the following dates and the events they mark :
 - a.* 1789, beginning of a government under the constitution.
 - b.* 1790, birth-year of the factory system in the United States.
 - c.* 1793, invention of the cotton gin.
 - d.* 1803, purchase of Louisiana.
 - e.* 1807, Fulton's steamboat.
 - f.* 1819, purchase of Florida.
 - g.* 1820, Missouri Compromise.
 - h.* 1823, Monroe Doctrine.
4. Show on a blank outline map of the United States the states in the Union in 1825 ; the slave states and free states at this date ; the territory included in the Louisiana and Florida purchases ; the free territory by the agreement of 1820 ;

the location of New York City, Philadelphia, New Orleans, Washington, St. Louis, Pueblo, Boston, Baltimore, Cincinnati, Springfield (Massachusetts), Albany (New York), Lancaster (Pennsylvania), Cumberland (Maryland), Wheeling (Virginia), Buffalo, Syracuse, Pittsburgh, Waltham (Massachusetts), Manchester (New Hampshire), Lowell (Massachusetts), Detroit, Savannah, Charleston (South Carolina), Pawtucket (Rhode Island), Lynn (Massachusetts); also such physical features as the Potomac, Mississippi, Ohio, Missouri, Columbia, Arkansas, Cumberland, Tennessee, Mohawk, Hudson, Delaware, and Merrimack rivers, Rocky Mountains, Pikes Peak, Lake Champlain, Lake Erie, Chesapeake Bay, Appalachian Mountains, Green Mountains, Berkshire Hills. All this is to be done without the aid of a book or map.

5. Give a floor talk on or write a brief discussion of the following topics:

- a. Means of Travel in the United States in 1830.
- b. Life on a Pioneer Farm.
- c. Going West in 1816.
- d. The Republican Policies of Thomas Jefferson.
- e. The Financial Plans of Alexander Hamilton.
- f. The Effects of the War of 1812 on New England.
- g. The Effects of the Steamboat on the West.
- h. Significant Inventions in the United States between 1789 and 1830.
- i. The Industrial Revolution in England.
- j. The French Revolution.
- k. The Factory System in the United States before 1830.
- l. Our Relations with Foreign Countries between 1789 and 1830.

IV. Write a short paper on "Books I have met and used while studying Division Five, Nationalism and Democracy." A brief description of books you include from the Day-by-Day Reference Library on pages 240-241 will do. A page or so on *one book* in the Story-Book Library on pages 241-242 will suffice for this list.

DIVISION SIX

EXPANSION AND CONFLICT, 1829-1865

FOREWORD

Between 1829 and 1865 the United States grew rapidly in population and in size. For the amount of the change you must look in the following pages. Perhaps more important than the *amount* of the increase are the *causes* of the increase. Was the increase due to large numbers of people born in this country, to the unusually large tide of immigration, or to both? If immigration was large, what were the reasons?

But the United States increased greatly in area also; in fact, the increases were the greatest in all our history since the close of the Revolution.

And, more than that, there were surprising inventions and discoveries and improvements. Some of these completely changed the life of the people. So rapidly did these changes come that a book about American geography printed in 1830 was completely out of date by 1840, a book printed in 1840 was of no use in 1850, and one published in 1850 was as much behind the times in 1860 as Fulton's steamboat would be today.

As these changes appear one by one, you ought to be on the lookout to see which ones are most important.

But there is another side to the picture. The larger a nation becomes and the more territory it occupies, the greater the danger of war between one part of the country and another. You will find out that the first president during the years 1829-1865 nearly had a war on his hands, and it will be necessary to notice exactly what the quarrel was about. And as the pages go on, one after another, you should be



A MISSISSIPPI RIVER STEAMBOAT LANDING BETWEEN 1830 AND 1860

Read Mark Twain's description, on page 559, of the arrival of a steamboat of this kind

always on the watch to see whether any subject mentioned might cause a war between two parts of the country.

The first part of the period 1829–1865 is closely connected with the last part. Notice the inventions and improvements. *If a war should come*, would the inventions make the war more terrible or less terrible? If machinery should be invented which could make uniforms faster and turn out greater quantities of guns, ammunition, and other supplies, what effect would that fact have on a war?

There are, then, three things to watch for in this division :

1. How the United States grew in population and area.
2. What inventions and improvements were made.
3. Why war was threatened, and what were the results.

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TWO TWENTY-FOUR-BOOK LIBRARIES

I. A DAY-BY-DAY REFERENCE LIBRARY

The twenty-four books in this library furnish an abundance of information on conditions, events, and persons between 1829 and 1865. Find as many of them as you can in your school library or public library. Bring them to your room for a reference bookshelf. You will want to use some of them every day.

1. *Kit Carson*, by John S. C. Abbott. Dodd, Mead & Company.

The adventures of a famous Western pioneer. A vivid word picture of the once "wild and woolly" West.

2. *The Westward Movement*, edited by C. L. Barstow. The Century Co.

Contains material on the pony express, early Western steamboating, pioneer farming, pioneer mining, and sixteen other topics relating to the westward movement.

3. *The Civil War*, edited by C. L. Barstow. The Century Co.

The title suggests the contents. First-class material on the military phases of the war. You will enjoy reading each of the twenty interesting accounts of battles, places, and persons.

4. *The Conquest of the Southwest*, by Cyrus T. Brady. D. Appleton and Company.

Begins with the Treaty of 1819 with Spain and ends with the Compromise of 1850. Much material on Texas and the Mexican War. A few good pictures.

5. *From Trail to Railway through the Appalachians*, by Albert P. Brigham. Ginn and Company.

Contains material on the Erie Canal, the National Road, and the New York Central, Pennsylvania, and Baltimore and Ohio railroads. Many choice pictures and a few useful maps.

6. *Sam Houston*, by G. S. Bryan. One of the True Stories of Great Americans Series. The Macmillan Company.

A vivid picture of Houston himself and a full account of the events in Texas which finally resulted in the annexation of that state by the United States.

7. *U. S. Grant*, by Lovel Coombs. The Macmillan Company.

An easy-to-read account of Grant's school days, his life at West Point, his early days in the army, and his part in the Mexican and Civil wars.

8. *The Story of David Crockett*, by Jane Corby. One of the Famous Americans for Young Readers Series. Barse & Hopkins.

A story full of adventure. Crockett was one of the last of the hundred and sixty-six Americans to fall in the famous battle of the Alamo.

9. *The Boyhood of Abraham Lincoln*, by J. Rogers Gore. The Bobbs-Merrill Company.

Fascinating stories given to the author by a playmate of Lincoln's who spent all his life among the hills of Larue County, Kentucky. Interesting side lights on the boyhood of a great man.

10. *The Jacksonian Period (1828-1840)*, edited by Francis W. Halsey. Volume VI of Great Epochs in American History. Funk & Wagnalls Company.

Many stirring events of this period are described in this volume. Some of them are the election of Jackson, the Webster-Hayne debate, the Black Hawk War, the Texan revolution, the murder of Lovejoy, the panic of 1837, and the election of William Henry Harrison.

11. *The Election of Lincoln and the Civil War (1860-1865)*, edited by Francis W. Halsey. Volume VIII of Great Epochs in American History. Funk & Wagnalls Company.

Tells about the nomination, election, and inauguration of Lincoln and the most important phases of the Civil War. A useful volume for this period.

12. *Slavery and the Mexican War (1840-1860)*, edited by Francis W. Halsey. Volume VII of Great Epochs in American History. Funk & Wagnalls Company.

In this volume one finds excellent accounts of the annexation of Texas, the invention of the telegraph and the sewing-machine, the Mexican War, and the significant happenings between 1848 and 1860.

13. *The Life of Robert E. Lee for Boys and Girls*, by J. G. de Roulhac-Hamilton and Mary Thompson Hamilton. Houghton Mifflin Company.

Much interesting history woven into the story of the life of a sturdy American. The chapters on his life at West Point, his service in Mexico, his life in the army, Appomattox, and his life after the war are excellent for general reference material.

14. *On the Trail of Grant and Lee*, by F. T. Hill. D. Appleton and Company.

An account of the chief events in the lives of two great Americans and the stirring times in which they lived. Interesting from the first page to the last.

15. *From Bull Run to Appomattox*, by Luther W. Hopkins. Fleet-McGinley Company.

A straightforward story of the Civil War. Very useful for the military phases of the war.

16. *Recollections of Life in Ohio from 1813 to 1840*, by William Cooper Howells. The Robert Clarke Company.

Twenty-eight chapters on all phases of pioneer life. Very valuable, inasmuch as pioneer life in Ohio between 1813 and 1840 was very much like that in neighboring states at the same time or a little later.

17. *Illinois in the Fifties*, by Charles B. Johnson. Flanigan-Pearson Company.

A description of things, conditions, and people as the author saw and knew them. You will enjoy both the reading matter and the pictures.

18. *The Story of Harriet Beecher Stowe*, by R. B. MacArthur. One of the Famous Americans for Young Readers Series. Barse & Hopkins.

The story of the life of the woman who wrote *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. You will enjoy reading it.

19. *Lincoln: The Man of the People*, by W. H. Mace. Rand, McNally & Company.

Interesting from the first to the last page. Do not miss reading all of it.

20. *Frontier Law*, by W. J. McConnell. World Book Company, 1924.

A first-hand story of the wildest days in the wild West. You will enjoy every chapter.

21. *Ox-Team Days on the Oregon Trail*, by Ezra Meeker. World Book Company.

Most of this book deals with life on the Oregon Trail and in the Northwest between 1845 and 1865. An eye-witness account of going West and of life in the Northwest during the early days.

22. *An Army Boy of the Sixties*, by Alson B. Ostrander. World Book Company.

A clear, vivid, and entertaining account of the life of a soldier during the Civil War.

23. *The Story of Mary Lyon*, by H. Oxley Stengel. One of the Famous Americans for Young Readers Series. Barse & Hopkins.

An account of the work of one of America's most famous women, who devoted her life to founding a school where girls could obtain an education at low cost.

24. *The White Indian Boy*, by E. N. Wilson. World Book Company,

A thrilling story of life in the region of Colorado, Nevada, Wyoming, Idaho, and Montana during the fifteen years before 1865. Much is said about the Indians, the pony express, and the overland stage.

II. A STORY-BOOK LIBRARY

Look through the twenty-four books listed below. Do any of them seem interesting to you? Tell the class about any you have already read. Choose one to read while you are studying Division Six. You may find the time to read more than one.

1. *The Quest of the Four*, by Joseph A. Altsheler. D. Appleton and Company.

This story deals with the defeat of Santa Anna by Taylor at Monterey.

2. *The Texan Scouts*, by Joseph A. Altsheler. D. Appleton and Company.

A story of the Alamo and Goliad.

3. *Stories of the Civil War*, by Albert F. Blaisdell. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

Forty-one short stories written in a lively and attractive style. They will interest you.

4. *On the Old Kearsarge*, by Cyrus T. Brady. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The naval battle between the *Alabama* and the *Kearsarge* during the Civil War. A story which is substantially true and historically correct.

5. *The Boy Settlers*, by Noah Brooks. Charles Scribner's Sons.

A story of early times in Kansas. A good picture of life in the West during the fifties.

6. *Lem, A New England Village Boy*, by Noah Brooks. Charles Scribner's Sons.

New England life about 1840.

7. *A Prairie Rose*, by Bertha E. Bush. Little, Brown & Company.

Rose is a pioneer girl who goes with her brother in a prairie schooner to Iowa, where they make their home.

8. *In the Boyhood of Lincoln*, by Hezekiah Butterworth. D. Appleton and Company.

Early settlers of Illinois. The adventures of a pioneer schoolmaster are made to represent the early history of a newly settled country.

9. *Rocky Fork*, by Mary H. Catherwood. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

Portrays rural school life of the Middle West in the fifties. The pleasures, ambitions, tasks, dress, and home life of the pupils are set forth.

10. *Civil War Stories Retold from St. Nicholas*. The Century Co.

A collection of thirteen stories dealing with the outstanding events of the Civil War. Each story is well illustrated.

11. *The Hoosier School Boy*, by Edward Eggleston. Charles Scribner's Sons.
School life in the Indiana backwoods in the eighteen-fifties.
12. *Fighting Westward*, by Aline Havard. Charles Scribner's Sons.
How people went west and northwest in 1848.
13. *The Tolem of the Black Hawk*, by Everett McNeil. E. P. Dutton & Company.
Pioneer life in the Middle West, especially in northern Illinois after 1830.
14. *Fighting with Fremont*, by Everett McNeil. E. P. Dutton & Company.
A tale of the conquest of California.
15. *The Boy Forty-Niners*, by Everett McNeil. Doubleday, Page & Company.
An account of a trip across the plains and mountains to the gold mines of California in a prairie schooner.
16. *With Crockett and Bowie*, by Kirk Munroe. Charles Scribner's Sons.
A tale of Texas. The story of the struggle by means of which Texas gained her independence.
17. *The Golden Days of '49*, by Kirk Munroe. Dodd, Mead & Company.
A tale of the California diggings.
18. *Stories of Dixie*, by James W. Nicholson. American Book Company.
Interesting stories of life in the South during the Civil War.
19. *The Boy Settlers*, by Edwin L. Sabin. Thomas Y. Crowell Company.
Kansas Territory during the emigrant days.
20. *On the Overland Stage*, by Edwin L. Sabin. Thomas Y. Crowell Company.
Overland stage route from Missouri to Salt Lake, 1861 to 1865.
21. *The Great Pike's Peak Rush*, by Edwin L. Sabin. Thomas Y. Crowell Company.
The Pikes Peak country of the Rocky Mountains in 1859.
22. *With Carson and Frémont*, by Edwin L. Sabin. J. B. Lippincott Company.
A thrilling story of the adventures of Carson and Frémont in the West during the years 1842-1844.
23. *Strange Stories of the Civil War*, by Robert Shackleton and others. Harper & Brothers.
Twelve stirring stories dealing with as many experiences, events, and impressions of the Civil War.
24. *Ella — A Little School Girl of the Sixties*, by Eva March Tappan. Houghton Mifflin Company.
A girl's life in a seminary and in the public schools.

DIVISION SIX

EXPANSION AND CONFLICT, 1829-1865

UNIT I. CHANGES AND CONFLICTS IN PRESIDENT JACKSON'S TIME

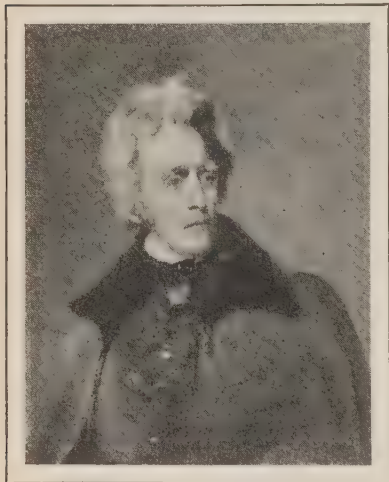
The most influential person in the United States from 1829 to 1841 was General Andrew Jackson. The "General" — or "Old Hickory," as his admirers termed him — was president for eight years (1829-1833 and 1833-1837). He had so much influence when his own terms came to an end that he was able to get his friend Martin Van Buren elected to succeed him. Van Buren served from 1837 to 1841, and constantly got advice from Jackson during his presidency. People either admired Jackson without limit or they hated him with great bitterness. Nevertheless, as his good qualities became better known — his courage, his love for the Union, and his desire to do the best thing for the United States — the number of his friends increased and the number of his enemies grew less.

1. WHAT SIGNIFICANT CHANGES DID JACKSON AND HIS FOLLOWERS MAKE?

The Inauguration of Jackson. Andrew Jackson was so great a change from the presidents who had gone before him that even his inauguration was different. Before Jackson's time the inauguration had been a solemn occasion; the people behaved quietly, and no great crowds came to see the exercises.

Everybody, however, was eager to see Jackson. On the morning on which he was to be inaugurated he walked from

his boarding-house to the Capitol bareheaded. He was surrounded by a crowd of men, women, and children, frontiersmen and soldiers. After the inauguration in the Capitol he went to the White House for a reception; and to the White House poured the mob—walking, riding, running, helter-skelter. The crush at the reception was so great, with people elbowing, pushing, and scrambling for room, that costly pieces



GENERAL ANDREW JACKSON

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of china and glassware were knocked to the floor. Frontiersmen in great muddy boots stood on the stuffed chairs and sofas to catch a glimpse of "Old Hickory." Eastern people, accustomed to a quieter inauguration, thought that the government of the United States had been put into the hands of a mob. A young New Englander who had just come to Washington to live said that President Jackson was an "ignoramus." He thought that with such a

man as president the Union would break up, and he said that it might be a good thing for New England if it did break up.

Voting and Holding Office. We remember that in the thirteen original states the privilege of voting for public officers had been confined generally to people who owned property. As the number of states grew larger, and especially as the Western states began to come into the Union, people began to demand the right to vote whether they owned property or not. About 1800 one state after another began allowing men to vote when they became twenty-one years of age, even if

they had no land or other possessions. States also began giving up the requirement that voters or public officers must belong to some particular church. These changes took a long time. They were going on before Jackson became president, and they continued long after he retired. But the change was in full swing in Jackson's day, and he and his supporters were in sympathy with it.

Jackson and his friends were also in sympathy with having changes among the officeholders in Washington. Very few persons who held office had been removed by any of the presidents from the beginning, in 1789, to the days of John Quincy Adams. When Jackson was president, however, many of his admirers went to Washington and asked him to give them positions. Especially they demanded that government officers who had favored Adams for president be put out. Jackson gave way, and removed many officers to make positions for his friends. The system by which the party that wins an election turns out government officers and puts in its own supporters is called the "spoils system." Jackson did not originate the idea, but he acted upon it, and so did the presidents who followed him.¹

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. List the presidents inaugurated up to March 4, 1829.
2. Compare the inauguration of Jackson with that of Washington.
3. Argue for or against the spoils system, as practiced in Jackson's administration. Is it still in practice?
4. Show the difference between a Democrat and a democrat.
5. Get acquainted with Jackson by reading "Old Hickory," in L. B. Evans's *America First*, pp. 294-298, and "Andrew Jackson," in *Our Presidents*, by James Morgan.

¹ One of Jackson's friends was so determined to get rid of all Adams's men that he declared they ought to be hanged. This man later turned out to be dishonest. The "spoils system" was customary in some of the state governments, and to a certain extent in the Federal government, before Jackson's time.

6. Select a book from the Story-Book Library on pages 343 and 344. Inasmuch as Division Six is a long one you will have time to read two books straight through while you are studying it. Make your first selection from books numbered 1, 2, 6, 8, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 20, and 23.

2. THE THREE GREAT CONFLICTS OF JACKSON'S DAY AND HOW THEY WERE SETTLED

During Jackson's presidency three great questions arose which caused bitterness and debate. They concerned (1) the tariff, (2) the right of a state to disobey a law passed by Congress, and (3) the United States Bank. It is necessary to know something about each of these in order to understand the history of President Jackson's day.

The Tariff. The first great conflict in Jackson's time was over the tariff question. From the close of the War of 1812 until the middle of Jackson's administration the tariff laws had been protective; that is to say, people who imported manufactured goods into the United States had to pay a considerable tax. The tax tended to keep foreign manufactures out of the country and was to the advantage of American manufacturers; hence those parts of New England and the middle states which had numerous factories generally favored the tariff laws.

The case of the South, however, was different. The South produced cotton, tobacco, and sugar, but it purchased its manufactured articles in the North or from Europe. The tariff laws *did not increase the price of cotton, tobacco, and sugar* which the Southerners sold, but *did increase the price of the manufactured articles* which they bought. Southern representatives tried to persuade Congress to lower the tariff, but it was of no use. The tariff helped the North, and the North desired it; the tariff hurt the South (or, at any rate, the South sincerely believed that it did), and the South hated it. South

Carolina, especially, felt injured by the continual passage of protective tariffs in 1816, 1824, 1828, and 1832. The South hoped that Jackson, being from Tennessee, would put through a lower tariff, but he did not. The Southerners were now in a difficult position :

They believed that the high tariff was injuring them and benefiting only the North.

They wanted a lower tariff but could not get it.

What would they do when both Congress and the President insisted on a high tariff ?

Nullification. This difficulty brought out a second great question of Jackson's time, 'a question which was argued bitterly when Jackson was in office and for many years afterwards. The point of the dispute is this : If Congress passes a law which hurts a state, what can the state do about it? Must it accept the law and obey it, no matter how harmful it seems to be? Or can it object in some way and perhaps get the law changed or repealed?

At this time there were in the Senate two great orators: Robert Y. Hayne and Daniel Webster. Hayne was from South Carolina, and South Carolina felt that the tariff laws were doing harm. Daniel Webster was from Massachusetts, and Massachusetts was contented with high-tariff laws.

Early in 1830 Hayne and Webster fell into a famous debate. It centered about this question: If Congress passes a law which injures a state, what can the state do about it? Hayne took this position:

Congress has only those powers which are set down in the Constitution.

If Congress passes a law which it has no right to pass, any state has the power to say that the law shall not go into effect within its borders.¹

¹ The arguments which Hayne used were probably originated by John C. Calhoun, the same Calhoun who had helped to start the War of 1812.

Webster did not agree with Hayne, and brought up these objections :

If the states can do as they please about obeying national laws, then some states will obey the laws and some will refuse. Thus the Union will fall apart.

When the Constitution was drawn up, it was perceived that disputes would arise about this very question. For this reason the Supreme Court was established, to judge in all such cases. If the court said that a law was *constitutional*, then *all states* must obey, even if the law hurt them ; if the court said that a law was *unconstitutional*, then *no state* need obey.

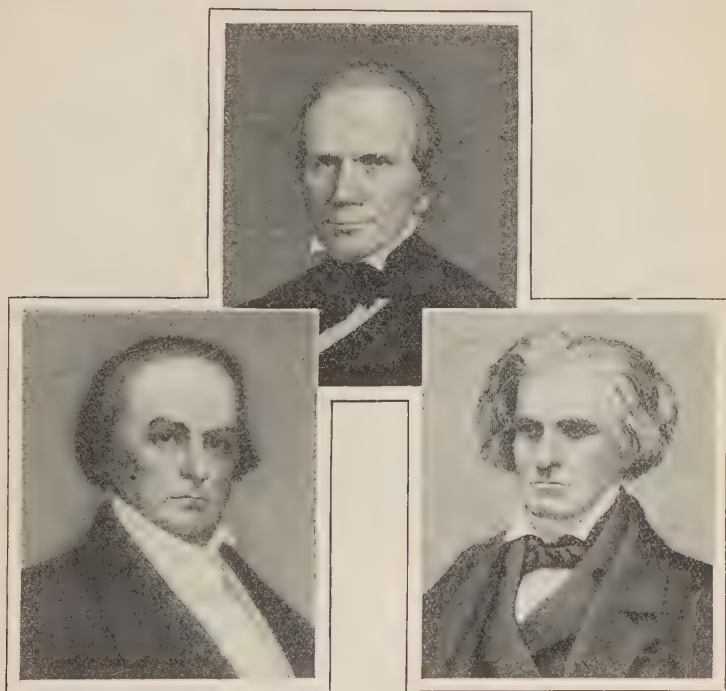
The question was really a very old one that had been troubling America since the days of John Adams. In the time of Adams, we remember, Virginia and Kentucky had thought that the states should complain about an objectionable law, or possibly even refuse to obey it. During the War of 1812 some people in New England had felt much the same way when Congress began a war which they opposed. Other states had felt the same way at other times. Hence South Carolina was not bringing up a new question, but an old one. The South Carolinians felt very keenly that they were being hurt, and they decided to do something about it.

In 1832 the people of the state elected a special convention which came to these conclusions : that the tariff law was contrary to the United States Constitution ; that South Carolina would not obey that law (in other words, would "nullify" it); that if the United States government tried to force the collection of the tariff in the ports of South Carolina, the state would leave the Union.

What would Jackson do about South Carolina? His influence was so strong that he might possibly break up the Union or cause war. Jackson declared that the Federal Union must be preserved, and notified South Carolina that the national

laws would be enforced. He even planned to send forty thousand troops to South Carolina.

In the meanwhile Congress was considering the trouble. Led by Henry Clay, it passed two laws: one, known as the Force Act, gave the president power to put down resistance

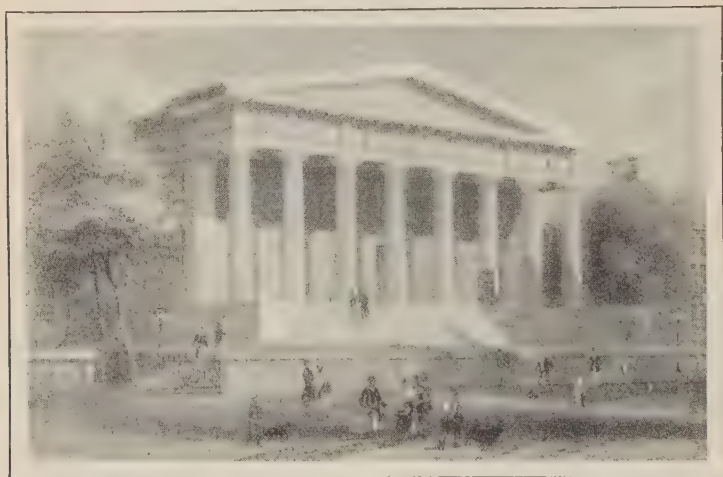


DANIEL WEBSTER, HENRY CLAY (ABOVE), AND JOHN C. CALHOUN

to Federal laws; the other was a new tariff act which was to lower the rates by a small amount each year for ten years, and after that time they would remain without change. The South Carolina people were satisfied with the lower tariff and gave up all idea of nullification.

The Bank Question. The third important conflict in Jackson's time was over the United States Bank. The question at

issue was, Ought the United States to continue to have a big central bank with branches in the chief cities? This question, like the second (the question about nullification), was an old one. Nearly all the time since Hamilton's day there had been a United States Bank. The one which Hamilton had started had come to an end in 1811, but a new one had been chartered in 1816 to run for twenty years. It would come to an



AN OLD PRINT OF A BRANCH OF THE UNITED STATES BANK, PHILADELPHIA

end in 1836. The government deposited its money in the bank and in its branches, which were in many of the chief cities.

Most of the people of the West, which was Jackson's part of the country, hated the bank. They thought it made too great profits. Moreover, it would not lend money on such easy terms as they desired. Some of the states complained that the bank was unconstitutional; although when the case was brought before the Supreme Court, the court said that Congress had the right to charter a bank if it wished. Besides these things, Jackson objected that the officers of the bank had opposed him and did not wish him to be president. In

1832 there was to be a presidential election. Jackson let it be known that he opposed the bank by vetoing a bill to re-charter it. Henry Clay said that he was in favor of it. Thereupon Jackson's friends all over the country rallied to his support, calling themselves Democrats. The admirers of Clay and the bank supported him and began to take the name of Whigs. In the election Jackson was victorious.

As soon as Jackson was reelected and found that the majority of the people agreed with him, he refused to deposit any more funds in the United States Bank. Whatever money was already there was gradually drawn out. The bank came to an end in 1836.

In this case, as in other cases, Jackson had his way. He wanted to put his friends into government offices, and he did it. He wanted to prevent nullification in South Carolina, and he did it. He wished to get rid of the bank, and that also was done. From Jackson's time to now the United States Bank has never been renewed.¹

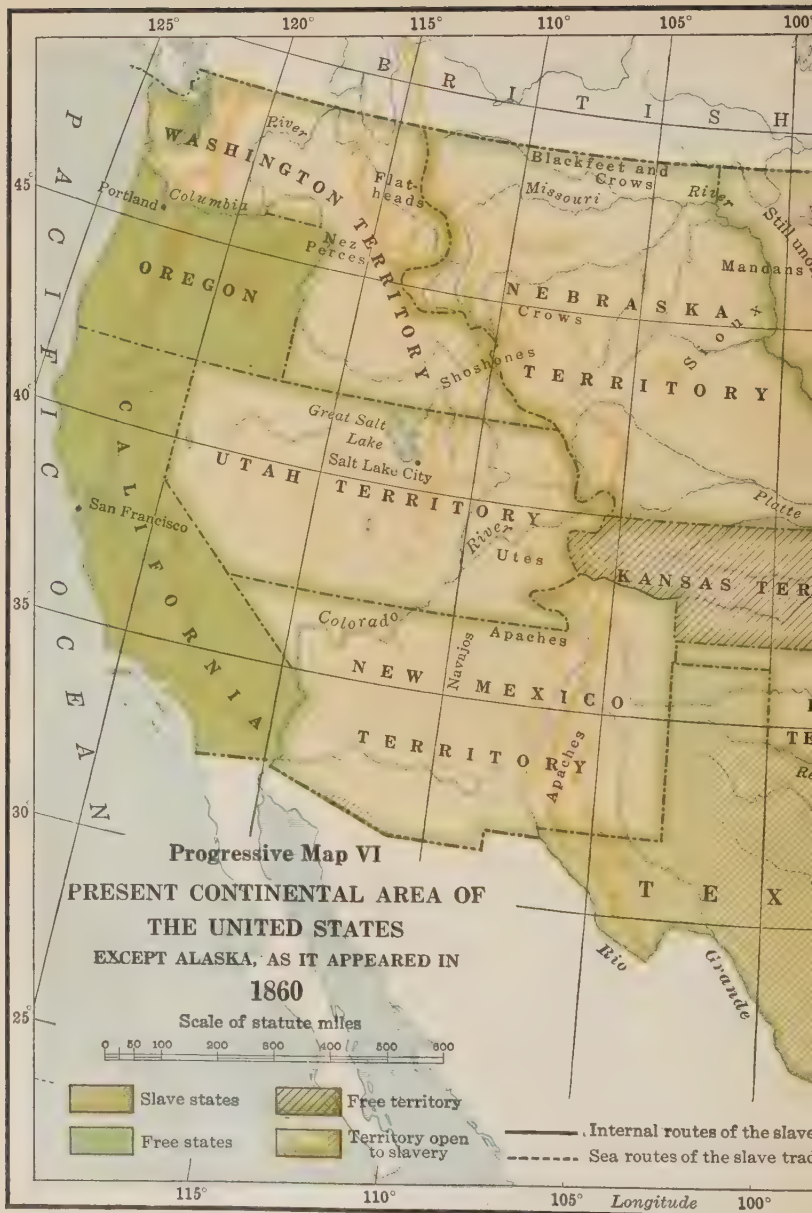
After a short time the government set up several "sub-treasuries" of its own in important places. In these buildings was stored the money of the government, to be paid out whenever it was needed. For most of the time since 1840 the subtreasury system has been in use.

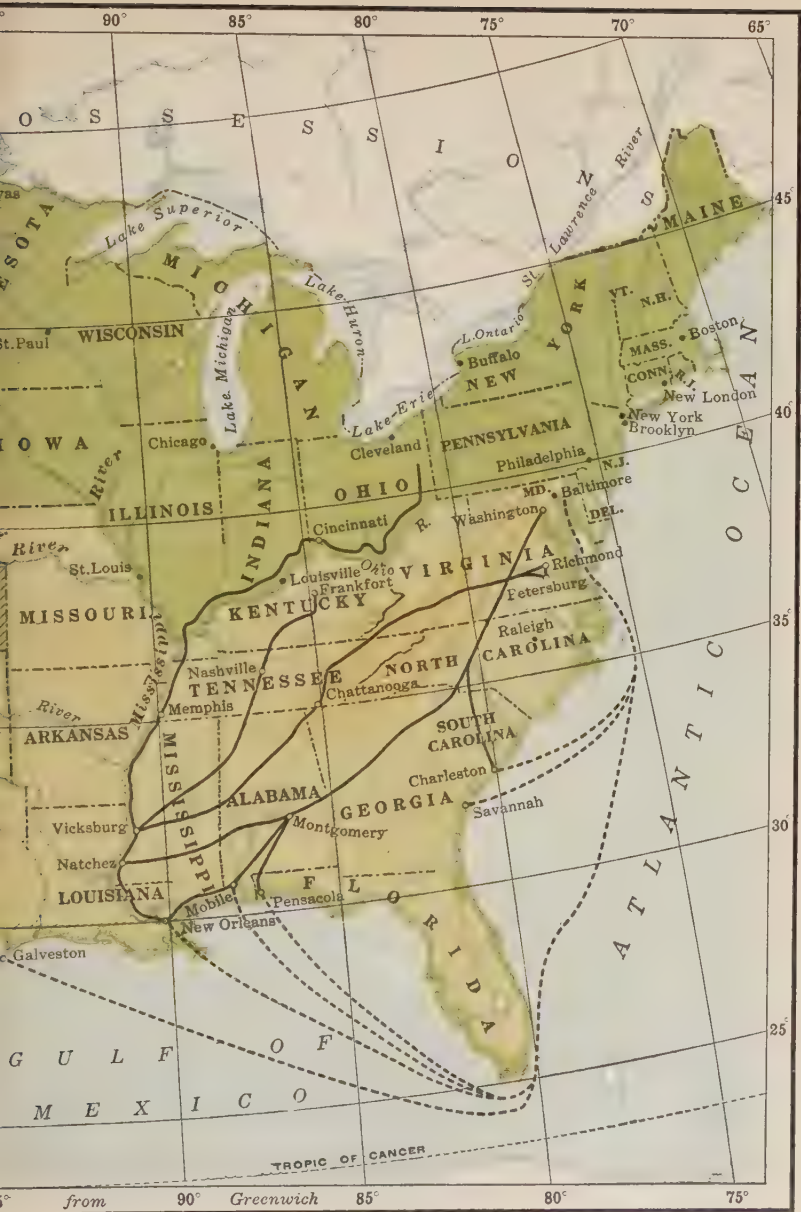
PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Show why so many people in New England and in the middle-Atlantic states and the West favored a high tariff in 1832 and why so many in the South opposed it.

2. Explain what is meant by "nullification." Show that the idea was not a new one in 1832.

¹ Jackson was equally successful in some other plans that he had. He wished the Indians sent west of the Mississippi River and placed on a great Indian territory, or "reservation." This was done. France had long owed American citizens a considerable amount of money for damages done to American shipping during the Napoleonic Wars. Jackson took up the matter with a good deal of earnestness, and France agreed to pay the claims.





3. List five important things that Jackson accomplished during his administration.

4. Tell a connected story of the three great conflicts in Jackson's day.

5. Make a list of some good things and some bad things that have come down to us from Jackson's time.

6. Read "Nullification and its Overthrow," by Theodore Roosevelt, in *The Jacksonian Period (1828-1840)*, pp. 20-30, Vol. VI of *Great Epochs in American History*.

7. For a class exercise let one pupil represent a New England manufacturer, another a New England shipowner, another a Southern cotton-grower, another a Pennsylvania farmer, and another a Western farmer, and let each state his position on the tariff and give reasons.

3. WHAT WERE THE TRENDS IN BUSINESS AND POLITICS IN JACKSON'S TIME?

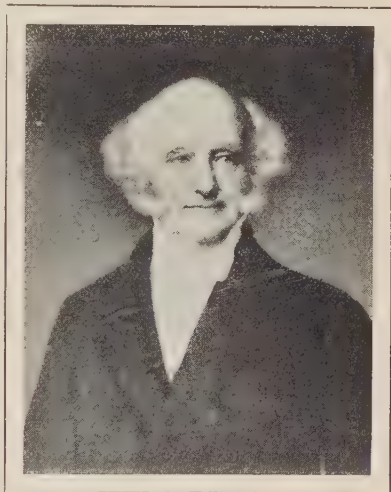
Business Conditions in 1837. While Jackson's attack on the bank was being carried out, business in the United States was very good. Industry was prospering, the mills were busy, and the workingmen were well employed. So big was the income of the government that the United States debt was entirely paid off by 1835. In a short time the government even had money left over after all the expenses had been paid, and lent some of it to the states.¹

But just after 1835 there came a sudden change in business: (1) crops were poor in 1835, so that the farmers were in distress; (2) a big fire in New York burned up \$20,000,000 worth of property; (3) business was bad in Europe, and European merchants began asking for money which American merchants owed them; (4) American business men had been buying a great deal of land and other things on borrowed money from the banks. They expected to keep the land or goods for a

¹ It was not expected that the money would be paid back, and no attempt has ever been made to collect it.

short time and to sell at a profit ; but they had bought more than they could sell, and they were not able to pay their debts when these came due.

In 1837 came what is known as a "panic." Business men were obliged to stop buying and manufacturing things which they could not sell. This slowing up of business threw men out of work. Within a few weeks twenty thousand people in New York alone lost their positions. Many people were put in prison because they were unable to pay their bills. People who owed money to banks did not pay it, and the banks had to close. For a number of years there was much suffering because factories, stores, and banks were not doing business as usual.



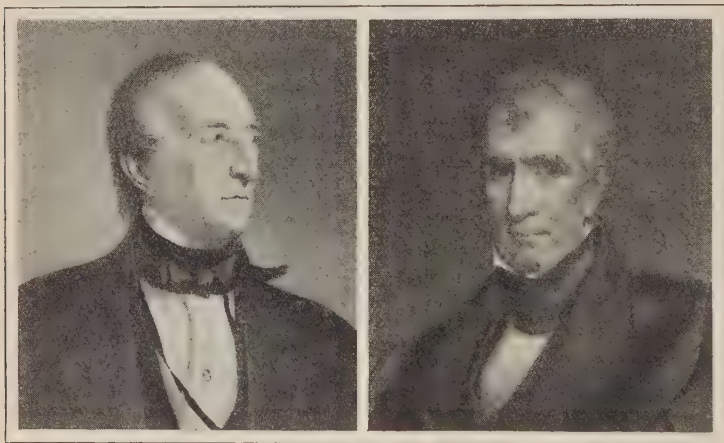
MARTIN VAN BUREN

The Great Political Conflict of 1840. Martin Van Buren,¹ Jackson's friend

and successor, was president during the panic of 1837. People who understand such things do not now believe that Van Buren was to blame for the business troubles, but the people at the time did blame him. The presidential election of 1840 came while the people were still more or less discontented. The election was called the "log-cabin" campaign and was a very interesting one ; in fact, it is sometimes considered one of the most interesting in our entire history.

¹ Martin Van Buren was born in New York, in 1782, and lived to be nearly eighty years of age. The Van Buren family was of Dutch origin.

The Democrats decided to nominate Van Buren again; the Whigs decided to nominate William Henry Harrison¹ for president and John Tyler for vice president.² Harrison was from Ohio, and was sometimes called Tippecanoe because he had defeated the Indians in 1811 in the famous battle of Tippecanoe. Apparently there was not much interest in the election until an Eastern newspaper sneered at Harrison as a



JOHN TYLER

WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON

man who wanted nothing in life but a log cabin to live in and a barrel of cider to drink. This aroused the Whigs and especially the Westerners; for millions of Americans still lived in log cabins or were the children of parents who had lived in them, and the sneer against "Old Tippecanoe" seemed like

¹ President Harrison was born in Virginia in 1773. His father, Benjamin Harrison, signed the Declaration of Independence; his grandson, also named Benjamin, was a later president. William H. Harrison graduated from Hampden Sidney College and studied medicine. He gained a reputation for skill and bravery in the War of 1812.

² John Tyler was another Virginian, born in 1790. Like Jefferson and Monroe he attended William and Mary College. It is said that he was playing a game with his children when a messenger came from Washington to announce that President Harrison was dead.

a sneer against them. The Whigs thereupon began to hold great parades in which were carried small log cabins, or banners with pictures of log cabins and barrels of cider. Nobody was able to find out just what ideas Harrison held about government, but they shouted for "Tippecanoe and Tyler, too,"¹ and elected their men. President Harrison died, however, soon after taking office, and John Tyler became president.

Tyler soon had a bitter quarrel with his party because the Whig leaders wished to start the bank again, and Tyler opposed it. Thereafter the Whigs and Tyler had nothing to do with each other.

The Boundary of Maine. Only Webster, Tyler's Secretary of State, remained in the cabinet; all the other members resigned. Webster had an excellent reason for staying, for he was in the midst of a dispute with England about the boundary of northern Maine.

This dispute had begun far back in 1783. In that year the treaty which closed the Revolution had defined the boundary. It was to begin where the "St. Croix" River entered the Atlantic. As there were several rivers in that neighborhood which were called St. Croix, nobody knew just which one was meant. Disputes arose, and war nearly broke out.

At this point England sent a very sensible man named Lord Ashburton to talk the matter over with Webster. The result of their discussion was an agreement called the Webster-Ashburton Treaty, which was signed in 1842. This gave part of the disputed land to England and part to the United States. There has never been any serious trouble about the Maine boundary since that time.

¹ Great numbers of political songs were used in this campaign; for example, this one about Van Buren, or "Little Van," as he was sometimes called:

For Tippecanoe and Tyler, too,
And with them we'll beat little Van.
Van, Van, Van is a used-up man
And with them we'll beat little Van.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Justify the use of the word "panic" to describe business conditions in 1837.

2. Give a three-minute floor talk on the panic of 1837.

3. In 1840 the Whigs were in favor of internal improvements at the expense of the national government, of a high tariff, and a United States Bank. The Democrats wanted free trade, internal improvements at the expense of the state in which they were made, and an independent treasury. Knowing these facts, make a speech for or against the election of Van Buren in 1840.

4. A great statesman will put service to his country above his own personal wishes or desires. Show that there was at least one such statesman in Tyler's original cabinet.

5. Read James Morgan's treatment of William Henry Harrison and John Tyler in *Our Presidents*. Tell the class what he says.

UNIT II. WESTWARD EXPANSION

The ten years that followed 1840 were full of important events. During these years hundreds of thousands of people went to settle in the states already started in the Mississippi Valley, others went to start new states, and still others went to fight for new lands west of what the United States owned in 1840. The things that these people did are an important part of American history after 1840.

1. HOW THE PEOPLE RUSHED TO THE WEST

Filling up the States already Established. So far we have watched the stream of settlers making their way along the Erie Canal, or over the highways from Philadelphia and Baltimore to Pittsburgh, or through the Cumberland Gap to live in Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Kentucky, or Tennessee. We have seen the stream get larger and larger after the War of 1812 (see pages 291-293). From 1830 to 1860 the number became

even greater. During those years more than a million people went to Indiana, almost a million and a half to Ohio, and about the same number to Illinois. Although Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, and Mississippi were not growing so fast, yet they were busy taking care of about half a million people each.

At this point one might reasonably ask, "If so many people were migrating to the West, was anybody left in the Atlantic coast states?" It might seem as if the East were being completely deserted, but this was not the case. It is true that most of New England was increasing very slowly, although Massachusetts was growing as fast as Alabama and Mississippi. Such Eastern states as New York and Pennsylvania were growing faster than even Ohio and Illinois. There were two reasons for the great increase in population in both East and West between 1830 and 1860:

In the first place, there was a great flood of immigration, especially from the British Isles and Germany.

In the second place, families were big in those days; eight, ten, twelve, and even more brothers and sisters were to be found frequently in a single family. Hence the Eastern states were able to send on settlers to the West and grow somewhat themselves besides.

Setting up New States. The student of geography in 1830 did not bound the United States on the West by the Pacific Ocean, as we do today. As the map on page 363 shows, he bounded it by an irregular line running from the Gulf of Mexico at the western side of Louisiana to Canada at the point where the highest Rocky Mountains touch the Canadian line. Five new states were started east of this irregular line between 1830 and 1860. These were Arkansas, Michigan, Florida, Wisconsin, and Iowa.

Southern people moving west in search of new, fertile land streamed across the Mississippi River and founded Arkansas,

which was admitted to the Union in 1836. Settlers going west from New England and New York began to pick up land in southern Michigan, and the state of Michigan was admitted in 1837. Georgia and Alabama overflowed their southern boundary into Florida, and Florida was admitted in 1845. In 1830 there were not enough people in what are now Iowa and Wisconsin to make it worth while to count them. Then the people began to pour in. In 1846 Iowa, the land "where the tall corn grows," was admitted as a state. Wisconsin followed two years later. By 1860 the two together had almost a million and a half of people. Is it not easy to understand why so many people were more interested in going west, in pushing the Indians out of the way, and in getting farms and paying for them by growing crops, than they were in quarreling about the tariff and the bank?

The Far West. It has just been said that the United States was bounded on the west in 1830 by an irregular line running from the Gulf of Mexico to Canada. This line was the boundary in 1844, but by 1850 the United States had reached the Pacific Ocean. What happened between 1844 and 1850 to make this great change?

Between the Pacific Ocean and that irregular line which was the boundary of the United States as late as 1844 lay an enormous stretch of land. At the north lay Canada; at the south, Mexico. This stretch of land was composed of high mountains and deep valleys; it contained huge rivers, and trees so large that the world did not contain their equal; it had an inland lake of salt water; it was covered with dense forests filled with all kinds of wild beasts. Its area was stupendous, about one and a quarter million square miles. This is enough land to make twenty-four countries of the size of England.

The southern half of this huge area was claimed by Mexico, and many Mexicans were already living in what are now

California, New Mexico, and Texas. The northern half was claimed both by Great Britain and by the United States. Hunters went there in order to catch fur-bearing animals. Fur-traders went there to buy furs. Here and there Indian tribes made a living by hunting and fishing.

The northern half of this vast area was obtained peaceably by the United States; the southern half came to us as the result of a quarrel. The acquisition of each area brings out some interesting facts.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Below is given the population of certain states in the years 1830 and 1860. Make a bar diagram to illustrate the increase in each state. For an example of a bar diagram see page 306.

STATE	POPULATION IN 1830	POPULATION IN 1860
1. Massachusetts	610,408	1,231,066
2. New York	1,918,608	3,880,735
3. Pennsylvania	1,348,233	2,906,215
4. Arkansas	30,388	435,450
5. Michigan	31,639	749,113
6. Florida	34,730	140,424

2. Read "The Fur Traders," in Grace R. Hebard's *Pathbreakers from River to Ocean*, chap. ii.

3. Make a list of all the states admitted to the Union between 1800 and 1865. Opposite each state, place the date of admission.

4. Give a floor talk on the topic "The Far West in 1845."

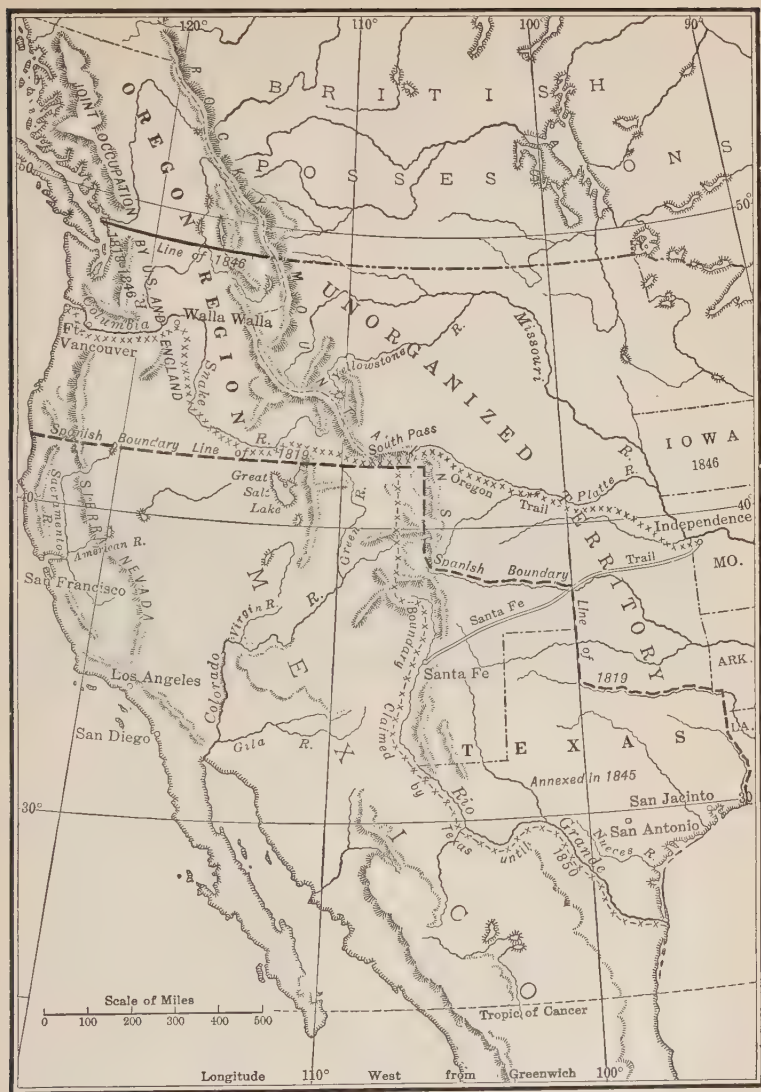
2. HOW THE "OREGON COUNTRY" AND THE STATE OF TEXAS WERE ACQUIRED

The Fur-Traders in Oregon. The northern half of the stretch of land which is mentioned above was known as the Oregon country. It had been explored rather thoroughly by the Lewis and Clark expedition of 1804-1806 (see pages 269-270).

After 1806, and especially after the War of 1812, Americans began to venture out into Oregon. There they found that English fur-traders were already at work, having come down from Canada. Then the American traders began to compete with the British. They followed up the rivers; they climbed the mountains; they searched the plains and fought the Indians, or made friends with them when they could. The great problem was to find passages through the lofty Rocky Mountains so that they could get to the Far West. The great purpose was to get furs, especially the beaver fur, to carry to the East for sale. By turning to the map on page 363 and looking in the northwestern part of the country, you may find the rivers, lakes, and other routes which the fur-traders traveled on or named: Green River (in Utah); Great Salt Lake (in Utah); Platte River (in Nebraska); South Pass (a passage through the Rockies in Wyoming); Yellowstone River (in Montana); and Snake River (in Idaho and Washington). These and scores of others were found and traveled over by the venturesome fur-traders who opened up the great Far West.

Life on the "Oregon Trail." After the fur-traders had found a way to the Northwest, settlers from the East began to be interested in it. Most of them went by the "Oregon Trail," a rough pathway leading from western Missouri to Oregon. Groups of settlers, missionaries who wished to preach to the Indians, and adventurous Easterners began going out. A thousand went in the single year 1843. Forts such as that at Walla Walla were built; homes were started; farms were planted.

It is possible for us to imagine fairly well the passage of the early settlers over the two-thousand-mile trail to Oregon. There would be a few wagons for the women and children to ride in and to carry the food; the men would ride on horse-back or walk. As many people as possible would go together for protection. Starting out from the last-settled towns in



OREGON AND TEXAS

western Missouri, the band would go northwest to the Platte River; then up the Platte valley for several hundred miles, watching at night for Indians who might pounce upon the expedition and kill the people and capture the horses and supplies. Sometimes thunderstorms would drench them; sometimes the dust and the heat would overcome them, for there are few trees and no shady forests on the plains about the



A SCENE ON THE OREGON TRAIL

This scene is shown in the motion picture "The Covered Wagon"

Platte. At last they would reach the Sweet water branch of the Platte and go through the South Pass over the mountains, then down to the Snake valley, then hundreds of miles where thirst was to be dreaded, where many starved because food was getting low, and where the ever-present Indian was to be feared. Such a journey can now be made comfortably in a few days; then it took four or five months.

The Ownership of Oregon. The migration of so many settlers brought up a serious question. Who owned Oregon? The United States claimed it because (1) early American ship captains had sailed along the Pacific coast and discovered

Oregon, (2) Lewis and Clark had explored it, (3) fur-traders, missionaries, and settlers were actually occupying it.

Great Britain, however, made similar claims. Who should decide? For a time the two countries agreed to let people from either country go in and settle. Then there came disputes, because colonists from each country wished to get the most fertile lands. In 1844 there was a presidential election. James K. Polk,¹ a Democrat, was chosen president, and some of his friends wished to make England give us all the Oregon country or have war about it. The name "Oregon" had often been applied to the entire country from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean, running from the 42d parallel of north latitude to latitude 54°40'. Some people of the Northwest were so anxious to have the whole territory that their cry was "Fifty-four forty or fight."

A wiser course, however, was finally followed. The boundary between Canada and the United States toward the east was the 49th parallel of north latitude. This line was extended to the Pacific Ocean in 1846. England, acting for Canada, took what was north of the line; we took what was south. This agreement gave the United States two hundred and eighty-seven thousand square miles of land.

The Santa Fe Trail. While settlers were migrating to the Northwest and laying out farms in fertile Oregon, traders were going to the Southwest over the Santa Fe Trail. This trail led from western Missouri across what are now Kansas and New Mexico to the Spanish town of Santa Fe. The men who went over the hot, dry, treeless plains seven hundred miles to Santa Fe were not settlers: they were traders. They took American goods; they came back with wool, blankets,

¹ President Polk was born in North Carolina, in 1795. The family had come from Ireland, and was originally called Pollock. Polk graduated from the University of North Carolina, was governor of the state, and later moved to Tennessee. He died only three months after leaving office.

silver, and gold. For some time the trade averaged \$130,000 a year. The result of all this trade was that some Americans began to wish that the United States owned the country about Santa Fe.

The Settlement of Texas. During the very years when travelers to Oregon were going over the Oregon Trail, and traders to Santa Fe were going over the Santa Fe Trail, other Americans were going into the country which we now know as Texas. Texas was a part of Mexico, and Mexico belonged to Spain. In 1821, however, Mexico revolted from Spain.

Texas was a huge country; big enough, for example, to make more than thirty states of the size of Massachusetts. Hence there was plenty of cheap land, and Americans began going there even when it belonged to Spain. Just about the time that Mexico was revolting, a Yankee from Connecticut, named Moses Austin, went down to Texas.¹ So did his son Stephen, who persuaded other settlers to go also. By 1840 Texas contained perhaps fifty-five thousand people. Most of them were Americans from Kentucky and Tennessee. A smaller number were from the North. This was not a large number for so huge an area, but it showed what might happen in the future.

The Annexation of Texas. The Texans were not happy as a part of Mexico. One difficulty was that Mexico tried to forbid slavery in Texas. The Texans did not like this, as most of them were from the South. Furthermore, Mexico passed a law to prevent Americans from going into Texas. The Texans did not like this either, and at last they decided to revolt from Mexico. A war started. At the battle of San Jacinto, April 21, 1836, the Texans were victorious under their leader, General Sam Houston, a famous fighter from

¹ When the Austins asked the Mexican government for a grant of land for the new settlers, the government gave *seven square miles to each head of a family*. Clearly there was plenty of land in Texas.

Tennessee.¹ Texas became free and adopted a form of government much like that of the United States.

As soon as Texas was free from Mexico it desired to join the United States. This was natural, for most of the settlers and most of the leaders in the war were citizens of the United



THE ALAMO, THE SCENE OF A FAMOUS BATTLE IN THE TEXAN WAR
FOR INDEPENDENCE

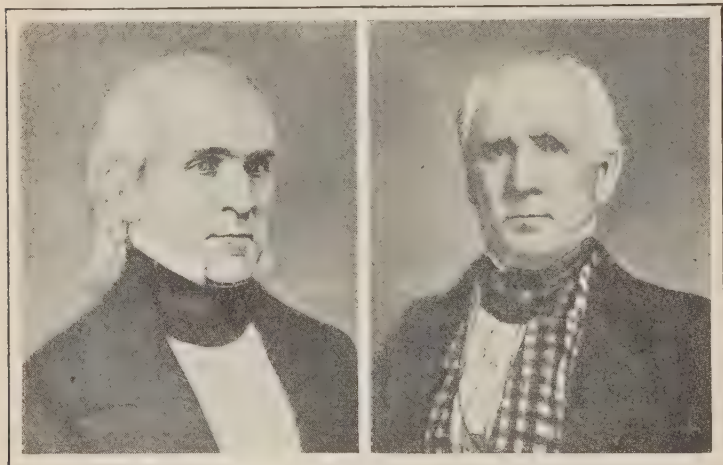
From a picture taken in recent times

States who had gone to Texas to live or to fight for Texan independence. This was the very time when the question of adding Oregon to the United States was being talked about.

¹ Texas still celebrates April 21, the anniversary of the battle of San Jacinto, as a holiday. The most memorable battle in the war for Texan independence, however, was that at the Alamo. The Alamo was an old mission building. Here three thousand Mexicans came upon one hundred and eighty Texans. The Texans, protected by the walls of the building, fought the Mexicans for more than a week. The brave defenders were killed off one by one until none were left except a few women and children. Among the dead were David Crockett, a famous frontier fighter, and James Bowie, the inventor of the "bowie knife." During the rest of the war "Remember the Alamo!" was a frequent cry.

If Oregon was to be annexed, why not Texas? Most of the people liked the idea of a big country. Why not make it still bigger by annexing a tremendous area of new land like Texas?

It is at this point that the slavery quarrel has to be remembered (see page 320). The North was willing to annex more *free territories* and *free states*, but what might be the result of adding a slave territory thirty times as large as



JAMES K. POLK

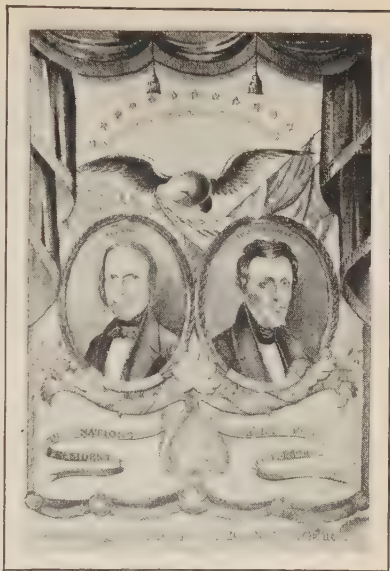
SAM HOUSTON

Massachusetts? If Texas should be admitted to the Union, might it not be divided into several slave states? Might not these new states outvote the free states in Congress? If this happened, the whole country might be opened to slaves and slaveholders. When the people of the North thought of these things, they were not so pleased with the plan to annex Texas.

Whether to take Texas or not to do so was debated for several years. Then came the election of 1844, which has already been mentioned (page 365). The Whigs nominated Henry Clay, who disgusted many of his Northern friends by not being sure whether he wanted to annex Texas or leave it alone.

Then, as we know, the Democrats nominated James K. Polk. The country was talking about Oregon, but it had not yet been annexed. Then Polk and the Democrats made a bold suggestion,—it was to *annex both Texas and Oregon*. This plan pleased the Northerners, who wished to add Oregon; it pleased the Southerners, who wanted Texas; and it delighted all those people who wished to have a big country and who wanted all the territory they could get.

Polk was successful in the election. The very next year (1845) Congress voted to annex Texas. We thus acquired two hundred and sixty-six thousand square miles of territory.



A CLAY CAMPAIGN BANNER CARRIED IN
THE ELECTION OF 1844

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Fix in your mind the location of the following: Rocky Mountains, Green River, Snake River, Great Salt Lake, Platte River, South Pass, the Sweetwater, Yellowstone, Virgin, and Colorado rivers, San Diego, Walla Walla, Fort Vancouver, Columbia River, Santa Fe.

2. Without referring to a map in the book, locate on an outline map of the western United States each item mentioned above. Trace on this map the route traveled by Jedediah Smith; also the Oregon Trail and the Santa Fe trail.

3. Read Ezra Meeker's little book *Ox-Team Days on the Oregon Trail*. Tell the class some of the interesting stories found in it.

4. Determine how many acres of land the Mexican government gave to each head of a family.

5. Explain with respect to Texas

a. Why the Texans wanted independence.

b. The origin of "Remember the Alamo!"

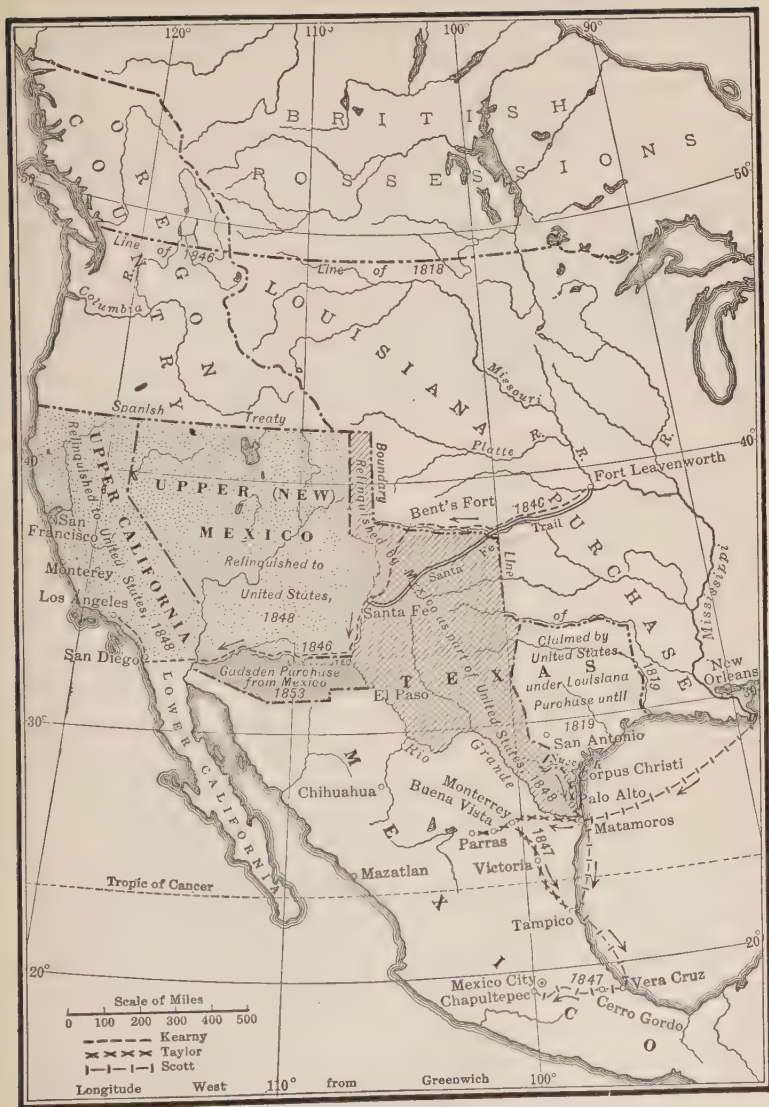
c. The attitude of James K. Polk.

6. Read "The Great Trails," in Grace R. Hebard's *Pathbreakers from River to Ocean*, chap. iii; *The Making of America*, by Grace Vollintine, chap. xvi; and "A Pioneer Boyhood," in *The Westward Movement* (edited by C. L. Barstow), pp. 88-102.

3. HOW THE BOUNDARY BETWEEN TEXAS AND MEXICO WAS SETTLED

The Beginning of the War with Mexico. The annexation of Texas was only the beginning of trouble, not the end: the trouble lay in the question Where is the boundary between Mexico and Texas? Mexico said that it was the Nueces River; Texas said that it was the Rio Grande (see page 371). The space between the two rivers was almost uninhabited. Although Mexico had some justification for her claim, so also had Texas. President Polk sent General Zachary Taylor with American troops clear down to the Rio Grande; that is, to the farthest edge of the disputed area. A fight resulted between American and Mexican troops. Then President Polk sent a message to Congress saying that Mexican soldiers had invaded American territory and killed American troops on American soil. He asked Congress to declare war on Mexico. Congress did as he asked on May 12, 1846. Some people have wished that President Polk had been more considerate of the rights of Mexico, and the Mexicans themselves have ever since been hostile to the United States.

The Three Campaigns of the Mexican War. The war against Mexico was composed of three main campaigns, together with a few smaller ones which do not require mention.



CAMPAIGNS OF THE MEXICAN WAR

The first of the three was directed toward the Mexican settlements in the region which we know as New Mexico, Arizona, and California. The northern part of Mexico at that time included our present states of New Mexico, Arizona, California, Nevada, Utah, and parts of Colorado and Wyoming. Their area was about five hundred and fifty thousand square miles. President Polk wanted this territory. Shortly after war was declared, therefore, he sent Colonel Stephen W. Kearny with a few hundred soldiers along the Santa Fe Trail. When Kearny approached the city of Santa Fe, the Mexican soldiers there fled without a fight. He then took a small force and started for California, which at this time had only a small number of white inhabitants. There were a few people at San Diego, a few at Los Angeles, and a very few at San Francisco and other spots. The distances between these settlements were so great that the people had practically nothing to do with one another.

Before Kearny reached the coast he got news that California had already been seized for the United States. Two naval commanders were there and a small group of explorers under Captain John C. Frémont. These officers threw a few soldiers into the little California settlements and raised the American flag.

The scene of the second campaign was in northern Mexico. General Taylor with a few thousand soldiers was on the Rio Grande when Congress declared war on May 12, 1846. He at once marched into northern Mexico. He fought the Mexicans here and there, winning every battle. At Buena Vista the enemy outnumbered him two to one, but he defeated them.

The third and final campaign of the war had as its purpose the capture of Mexico City. This city was two hundred and fifty miles from the coast. Since it was the capital of Mexico, its capture might bring the war to an end. General Winfield S. Scott, a veteran of the War of 1812, was chosen as leader.

In March, 1847, Scott landed about twelve thousand men at Vera Cruz, on the coast. He then marched toward Mexico City, fighting all the way. The Mexicans fought in the mountain passes, and when they were defeated they fell back to the next good position. Every battle that Scott fought was a victory, and on September 14, 1847, he entered the city. Mexico now had to agree to end the war.

What did the United States Obtain? As the result of the war Mexico had to agree (1) that the Rio Grande should be the boundary between Mexico and Texas; (2) that the United States should take the territory now known as the states of New Mexico, Arizona, California, Nevada, Utah, and parts of Colorado and Wyoming. The United States agreed to pay Mexico \$15,000,000.¹

Other Points about the War. The war had other interesting points besides the addition of territory:

It cost the United States about \$100,000,000 and several thousand lives.

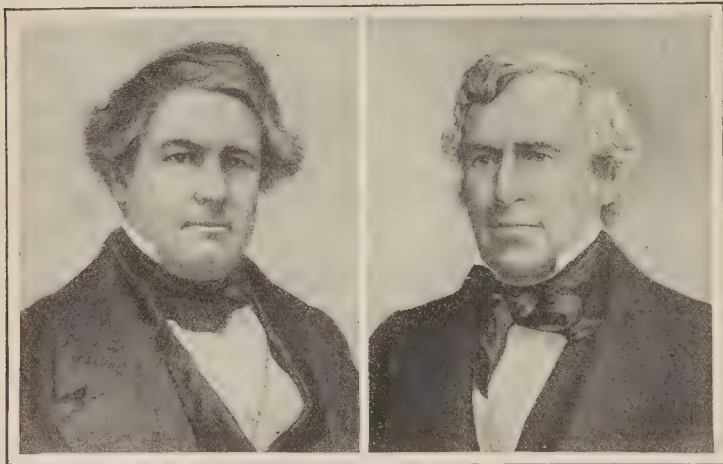
The Mexican troops sometimes fought bravely and sometimes they did not. Their government was not a good one, they had poor military supplies, and they knew little about warfare.

The American soldiers were better troops, they had better military supplies, and they were better led. Unfortunately, too many American soldiers were untrained for warfare, and this lack cost a great many lives. Moreover, too many American officers were appointed merely because they were friends of politicians in Washington.

On account of the way the war began, the countries of South and Central America have ever since felt that the United States was not quite fair in her treatment of Mexico in 1846.

¹ In 1853 the United States bought 29,670 square miles of land from Mexico for \$10,000,000. This is known as the Gadsden Purchase, from the name of the man who acted for the United States. The land was added to Arizona and New Mexico.

When Taylor was successfully fighting his way through northern Mexico, President Polk was afraid that one of the parties might nominate the general for president. Polk did not like the idea, as he was a Democrat and Taylor was a Whig. It worked out as Polk feared: the Whigs nominated



MILLARD FILLMORE

ZACHARY TAYLOR

Taylor¹ in 1848 and elected him. He died after being president a little over a year, and Millard Fillmore,² the vice president, succeeded him.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. *Resolved*, That the Mexican War was justifiable. Defend or deny this statement in a three-minute floor talk.

2. Make a list of all the persons mentioned in this section. Show the part that each had in settling the boundary between Texas and Mexico.

¹ Of the first twelve presidents no fewer than seven were born in Virginia. Zachary Taylor was one of the seven. He made himself famous and beloved by his soldiers during many campaigns against the Indians and in the War of 1812. For a part of his life he owned a large cotton plantation in Louisiana.

² Millard Fillmore was born in New York and lived until 1874.

3. "The Results of the Mexican War." Discuss in a brief floor talk.
4. Show why President Polk had reasons for his fears about General Taylor's election to the presidency in 1848.
5. Find and read material on Texas and on the Mexican War in numbers 4, 6, 8, and 12 in the Day-by-Day Reference Library on pages 340 and 341; also in *America First*, by L. B. Evans, and *The Expansion of the American People*, by E. E. Sparks.
6. James Morgan's treatment of Polk in *Our Presidents* is very interesting. Read it.

4. WHY AND HOW PEOPLE RUSHED TO CALIFORNIA

Growth in Area, 1840-1853. By 1853 the United States had reached Mexico on the south, Canada on the north, and the Pacific Ocean on the west. The additions since 1840 had amounted to 1,234,566 square miles, distributed as follows:

Texas, including disputed land (1845)	389,166
Oregon (1846)	286,541
Cession from Mexico after the war (1848)	529,189
Gadsden Purchase (1853)	29,670
<i>Total</i>	<u>1,234,566</u>

This amount of land would make twenty-four countries of the size of England, and one and a half countries the size of the United States at the time Washington was president. The population of the huge territory, aside from the Indians and Mexicans, was almost nothing.¹

¹ About the time we were acquiring land from Mexico, an interesting settlement was being made in the midst of the Rocky Mountains by the "Mormons."

The Mormons were a religious group started by Joseph Smith in New York in 1830. They lived for a time in Missouri and then in Illinois. They soon had disputes with their neighbors and decided to move. A few leaders started for the West, following the Oregon Trail part of the way. At length, in 1847, they hit upon the country about Great Salt Lake. They found that the country would provide excellent crops if irrigated with plentiful supplies of water. Gradually other Mormons came over the trail to the Salt Lake; and Salt Lake City was laid out, with wide streets and with plenty of land for everybody. In 1920 its population was one hundred and eighteen thousand.

Travelers on the way to California began to stop there. In 1850 the region between Kansas and California was called Utah Territory. In 1896 part of this territory was made into the state of Utah.

The Discovery of Gold in California. The part of the Mexican cession which we know as California contained 158,297 square miles; yet at the close of the Mexican War, many people had probably never yet heard the word "California." Doubtless most people did not have any accurate idea as to where California was. Only two years later, however, people all over the world were talking about it. Thousands upon thousands of them were starting for the Pacific coast; still more thousands wished they could do so. What was it that caused so great a change?

In 1848 a German named Sutter had a little mill on the American River. This is a branch of the Sacramento, which flows into San Francisco Bay. One day early in 1848 some gold was found so near the surface that men could get it out with a pick and shovel; in fact, some of it had been dug out of cracks in the rocks with nothing but a big knife. Stories about the gold in California began to spread like fire in dry grass. It was said that two men had found seventeen thousand dollars' worth of gold in seven days. Rumors flew about that fabulous amounts of gold were lying around merely waiting for somebody to pick them up. Then began the rush to California.

The Rush to the "Diggings." Shiploads of excited men left every Eastern port, going around Cape Horn or via the Isthmus of Panama, where they made their way across and took ship for San Francisco. Other thousands went over land — all of them doomed to suffer from heat and cold and hunger, and many of them to leave their bones on the wide plains or among the Rocky Mountains.¹ When the ships reached the

¹ The dangers faced by the "forty-niners" — the men who rushed to California in 1849 — may be illustrated by the adventures of the "Donner party." Just before gold was discovered, a group of immigrants left for California over the plains. It was led by two men named Donner. All went well until they reached the present boundary of Nevada and California. There, although it was only October, they found snow. The drifts were so deep that progress was almost impossible. The animals which they had brought with them — mules and cattle — were killed and

Pacific coast, both passengers and crews scrambled for the gold diggings. Mill hands dropped their work, farmers left their plows, and soldiers deserted from the army. Men came from England, from China, from Australia, — from all over the world. Many of these men were rough, lawless people. Fights and even bloodshed were so frequent that at last a governor was sent out from Washington to take control. A government was started. Order began to be maintained.¹

Nobody knows exactly how much gold was obtained in California in those early days. It is estimated that at least \$40,000,000 were obtained in 1849, \$50,000,000 in 1850, and \$65,000,000 in 1853. Then the amount began to drop. The gold on the surface had been picked up for the most part, and the wild rush to the gold diggings began to slacken.

California: Free or Slave? In 1850, just as the excitement about the gold was at its height in California, political excitement was arising at Washington. The cause was slavery. There were at that time thirty states in the Union. Fifteen held slaves; fifteen did not. If California was to be admitted, should it be slave or free? Into how many states or territories should the Mexican cession be divided? How many of them should be free? How many of them should be slave? These were important questions, because the Union was almost as big as it would ever be. If the free states should be in the majority, they might abolish slavery; if the slave states

eaten. Enough shelters were built; but more snow came, and at length all food was gone. Finally a few of the party managed to get through to settlements and bring back relief. Almost half the party, however, had died of their sufferings.

¹ After a few years there began to be a demand for more rapid communication between the East and San Francisco; hence in 1860 the "pony express" was started. Letters and telegrams were carried from the East by rail to St. Joseph, in Missouri. At that point a rider on a fleet pony was waiting to gallop as fast as possible ten or fifteen miles. At the end of this distance a fresh pony was ready and waiting for the next ten or fifteen miles. Each rider covered seventy-five or eighty miles. The pony express went the entire distance in ten days, which seemed like lightning speed at that time. In 1923 the pony express was revived for one trip, in order to recall olden times. Two hundred and forty-three horses were used for the trip. An account of this was given in the *New York Times*, September 1, 1923.

should get control, they might spread slavery everywhere. Moreover, the South was angry with the people in the Northern states who were helping slaves to run away. The slave-owners were demanding some sort of law to stop such things.



ON THE WAY TO CALIFORNIA

A scene from the motion picture "The Covered Wagon"

During the excitement in Washington, Henry Clay, the great peacemaker, suggested the following solution of the trouble:

California was to come in as a free state because the people there wished it to be free. (This would please the North.)

The Mexican cession was to be divided into two great territories, Utah and New Mexico. The question of slavery or freedom was to be left for the people there to decide. (This avoided the danger of trying to settle the question in Congress.)

A law was to be passed forcing the people of the North to return runaway slaves. (This would please the South.)

Buying and selling slaves, but not slavery itself, was to be stopped in the District of Columbia. (This would please the North.)

Then there began a long and bitter debate in the Senate over Clay's four proposals. Daniel Webster sided with Clay; John C. Calhoun took sides against him. Young men from the South, such as Jefferson Davis, agreed with Calhoun. Young senators from the North, such as William H. Seward and Salmon P. Chase, did not like the runaway-slave law. Moreover, they wished slavery forbidden in the territories; hence they were against Clay's plan.

After both sides were thoroughly angry at each other and a great many threats had been made, Clay's proposals were all passed. The country breathed a sigh of relief, for at last the slavery question seemed settled. All the states and territories save Utah and New Mexico were either free or slave, and the people of these two were to settle the question for themselves. Could anything possibly raise the slavery question again?

The Passing of Four Great Leaders. About the time of the "Compromise of 1850" — as Clay's proposals were called — Calhoun, Clay, and Webster died. Since the War of 1812 these three men, together with Andrew Jackson, had had more influence in the United States than any other group. None of them agreed fully with the others; in fact, although Clay and Webster were often friendly, all four of these great men were usually bitter opponents. The following table will show how nearly parallel their lives had been :

	DATE OF BIRTH	DATE OF DEATH
Jackson	1767	1845
Clay	1777	1852
Calhoun	1782	1850
Webster	1782	1852

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Account for the beginning of the present state of Utah.
2. Explain the meaning and significance of "the diggings," "the forty-niners," and "the pony express."
3. Make a list of the slave states and free states in 1850.
4. *Resolved*, That the South was more favored than the North in the Compromise of 1850. Defend or deny this statement in a brief floor talk.
5. Write a statement of approximately two hundred and fifty words about each of the following: Henry Clay, Andrew Jackson, John C. Calhoun, Daniel Webster. Read accounts of Clay, Calhoun, and Webster in L. B. Evans's *America First*, and James Morgan's account of Jackson in *Our Presidents*.
6. Look up and read on California and the discovery of gold in *America First*, by L. B. Evans; *The Westward Movement*, edited by C. L. Barstow; *The Expansion of the American People*, by E. E. Sparks; *The Making of America*, by Grace Vollintine; and *Pathbreakers from River to Ocean*, by Grace R. Hebard.
7. Note again the effect of the discovery of gold in California. Can you find out about any other region into which people have flocked in the same way?
8. The picture on page 378 is from a motion picture. What can you discover in it that shows that the picture is accurate?

UNIT III. CHANGES IN INDUSTRY, 1830-1860

The thirty years between 1830 and 1860 saw great changes in industrial America. Improvements were made in the means of transportation; inventions were made which gave greater comfort to the people; methods of manufacture which had been used in earlier times were given up, and improved methods were introduced. All these changes make up a sort of "industrial revolution," such as happened in England about 1800. An account of some of these improvements will show how important they were.

1. HOW BETTER AND FASTER TRANSPORTATION WAS SECURED

Turnpikes and Boats. During the thirties and forties and fifties great strides were made in solving the transportation problem that faced the country in 1830. The improvement of highways went on as before. The Conestoga wagon made its way over the turnpikes from New England to the Carolinas, and beyond the mountains to the West.

The flatboat continued to be seen on the Ohio and the Mississippi. The river steamboats reached the height of their popularity between 1830 and 1860. So numerous were they on the Mississippi that people counted two hundred wrecks in two hundred miles between the city of St. Louis and the mouth of the Ohio River. The value of the cargoes carried by the steamboats on the Mississippi River and the Great Lakes in the eighteen-fifties ran up into hundreds of millions of dollars.

The Canals. During the twenty or twenty-five years after the completion of the Erie Canal in 1825, a craze of canal-building swept over the country. It is estimated that there were 1270 miles of canals in the United States as early as 1830, as many as 3320 in 1840, and 3700 ten years later.

Stimulated by the almost instantaneous success of the Erie Canal, both the East and the West took up the construction of canals with great enthusiasm. Canals seemed to be the last word in faster transportation, and millions of dollars were soon spent. To compete with the Erie Canal, Pennsylvania built a series of canals and portage railroads between Philadelphia and Pittsburgh. This undertaking was finished in 1834 and met with immediate success. Not so much can be said, however, for the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal from Washington up the Potomac to Cumberland. The difficulties connected with constructing this canal made progress so slow

that it was 1850 before it reached Cumberland. By this time the railroad had achieved such great success that further work on the canal was given up.

When and Where did the Railroads Begin? The many political quarrels of the years between 1828 and 1840 and the building of canals did not prevent other important improvements in American life. The first had to do with the question, always so important in the United States, How can people and products be got from place to place more quickly?



THE *BEST FRIEND*, THE FIRST LOCOMOTIVE BUILT IN THE UNITED STATES
FOR ACTUAL SERVICE ON A RAILROAD

In England they were beginning to use a contrivance called the "railroad" in 1829. A man named George Stephenson had built a steam engine called the *Rocket*, which would pull cars along a track. Americans became interested in the plan. Crude railroads were built for short distances in Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and Virginia. The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad was begun on July 4, 1828. Charles Carroll, the last living signer of the Declaration of Independence, took part in starting it. A small line was also operated, not long afterwards, in South Carolina.¹

¹ When railroads were first suggested, all sorts of objections were made to them; for example, in 1829 some people in Lancaster, Ohio, declared that God never intended to have human beings travel at the frightful speed of fifteen miles an hour. If he had intended such a thing, they thought, the Bible would have said so.

The first railways were really *rail roads*; that is, roads with rails on them. The tracks were made of wood, the cars were built like stagecoaches, and horses drew the cars as if they were on a road or a highway. Sometimes the wooden rails were covered with thin strips of iron, and these often curled up and broke holes in the bottom of the cars, to the great surprise and danger of the passengers.

Horses were quickly replaced by steam engines. In 1831 Peter Cooper built a steam engine which ran from Baltimore to Ellicott's Mills, a distance of thirteen miles. The name of the engine was *Tom Thumb*, and its speed was six miles an hour. One day *Tom Thumb* on the way back raced a car drawn on tracks by a horse. The race was nip and tuck until something went wrong with the engine; then the horse won.

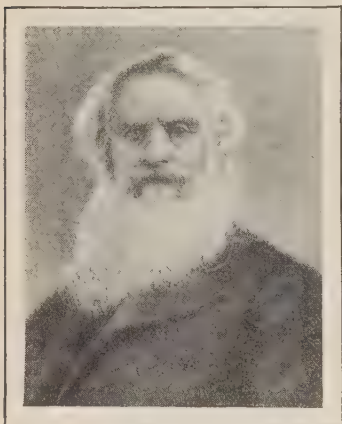
The fuel used in the early engines was wood. The smoke, of course, was thick, and the sparks fell in showers. Passengers were set on fire. When the supply of wood gave out, passengers might jump off the cars and help to put on more. It may be imagined, too, that fires frequently started in the woods and fields wherever the trains ran near.

The first cars were like wagons or stagecoaches; in fact, a passenger car is still called a coach. The speed was very small at first. Even in 1840 a railroad running from Philadelphia to the South proudly boasted that its trains went at the rapid rate of twelve miles an hour. It was fortunate that the rate was no greater; for railroading was just beginning, and accidents were common.

In 1844 Samuel F. B. Morse invented the telegraph. This helped railroading, since it enabled railroad officers to send word on ahead that a train was coming, and thus prevented accidents.

Growth of the Railroads in the Fifties. In 1850 there were about ten thousand miles of railroads in the country. During the fifties the railroads began to compete sharply with other

means of transportation. Lines were built out from Philadelphia, from New York, and from Southern towns and cities. Throughout Indiana, Ohio, Illinois, and Michigan, railroad construction was carried on with great energy. By 1860 there were 31,000 miles in the whole country, enough to go around the world with some to spare. To aid in building these thousands of miles the Federal government between 1850 and



SAMUEL F. B. MORSE AND THE
TELEGRAPH

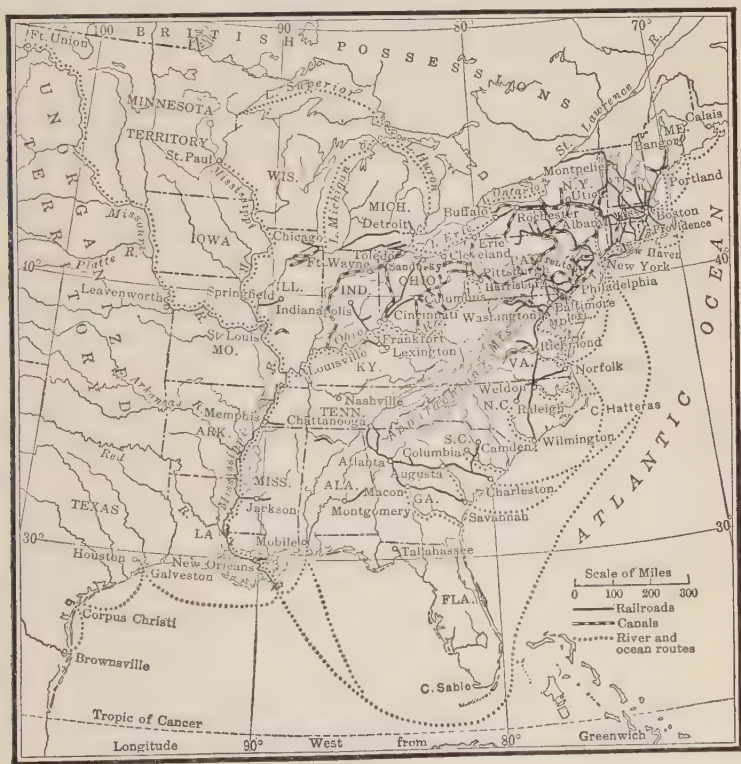
The telegraph was used in 1844 in order to send news to Washington, from the National Democratic Convention in Baltimore, of the nomination of Polk for president

1860 gave about two hundred million acres of land. The Illinois Central alone, which connects Chicago with the South, received a gift of more than three million acres.

In spite of this rapid growth in the fifties, however, it must not be thought that railroads were common even in 1860. Most of the roads were in the Northeast. Possibly the majority of people in the United States had not even seen a railway train in 1860. Moreover, traveling was neither pleasant nor very safe in the early days. Brakes were yet to be improved. Cars had to be made more safe and comfortable, and ways had to be found to light and heat the coaches. Engines had to be built which could be relied upon not to break down frequently.

Effects of the Railroads. As soon as the railroads proved that trains could be run swiftly and safely, many changes took place in America:

The fever for building canals was greatly lessened. Canal boats (which had once seemed so speedy) were now too slow.



CANALS, RAILROADS, AND RIVER AND OCEAN ROUTES IN 1850

The states gave land to the railroad companies, and the people began to invest in them all the money they could save. Highways were built to connect with the railroad stations.

Where railroads crossed or ended or came together, towns were likely to spring up.

Whenever a railroad began to run in a region, factory-made goods began to come in, and the products of the region began to go out on the trains. The spinning-wheel was no longer used, because factory-made clothes were easily purchased. The tin-peddler came no more, for his goods could now be brought in by trains and sold at the village store.

People traveled more. The West, especially, filled up more rapidly, and people went to the cities to live.

The farmers were greatly benefited by the railroad. Wherever it went, it enabled them to send their products more easily to market.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Trace on an outline map the following canals: the Erie, the Pennsylvania, the Chesapeake and Ohio, the Ohio, the Miami, the Wabash and Erie, and the Illinois.

2. The railroads financially ruined many people who had put their money in canals. Does this prove that the railroads ought not to have been built?

3. Using the data below, make a bar diagram to illustrate the increase in canal mileage between 1830 and 1850.

DATE	TOTAL MILES OF CANALS
1830	1270
1840	3320
1850	3700

4. "Effects of the Railroad before 1860." Discuss this topic in a brief floor talk.

5. Compare canals and railroads as means of transportation.

6. Excellent material on the better and faster transportation is found in *From Trail to Railroad through the Appalachians*, by A. P. Brigham; *Pathbreakers from River to Ocean*, by Grace R. Hebard; *The Expansion of the American People*, by E. E. Sparks; *The Story of Corn and the Westward Migration*, by E. C. Brooks; and *Real Stories from Our History*, by J. T. Faris. Be sure to read some of these.

2. WHAT INVENTIONS AND IMPROVEMENTS WERE MADE DURING THE THIRTIES, FORTIES, AND FIFTIES?

Farm Machinery. The inventions which made possible the changes in the means of transportation were not the only ones that came to see the light of day between 1830 and 1860. Changes in farm machinery were rapidly taking place during those years.

One especially important improvement was the iron plow. Farmers had for centuries used wooden plows, which broke and wore out quickly. Various men tried to invent a better one, and in 1825 Jethro Wood of New York made one of iron. It was made in parts, so that if one part got broken the injured piece could be taken out and a new one put in. Early in the eighteen-thirties great numbers of farmers were using iron plows. Horses began to be used instead of oxen in plowing, and the farmer was able to work more rapidly.

Another important invention was the McCormick reaper. On the fertile plains of the West the grain grew so bountifully that the farmer was not able to reap it, even with the help of his wife and children, although they worked from sunrise to sunset. The trouble was that the only reaping tool was the sickle or the scythe. Many men tried to improve on these tools. At length a farmer named McCormick, living in the Shenandoah valley, in Virginia, produced a machine which he called a reaper. His son, a blacksmith, improved upon it. In 1831 he made a machine that did the work of many men with sickles and scythes. In 1847 he built a factory in Chicago to make the machines, and they gradually came more and more into use. Not long afterwards a machine was invented which separated the kernels of grain from the straw and chaff. These changes, together with the immigrants who came to work on the farms, helped the farmer to produce the food which the country needed, in spite of the fact that so many

people were giving up agricultural pursuits and were going to the factories in the cities.

Other Inventions and Improvements. A number of little changes made life different after 1830 or 1840 from what it had been in Washington's day. The number of post offices was increased. There were a hundred times as many when



HARVESTING IN 1831

A model of McCormick's first reaper

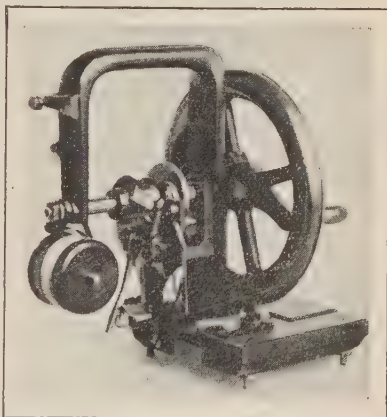
Jackson became president as when Washington was our chief executive. Receiving a letter was no longer such a rare thing.

The sewing-machine was invented by Elias Howe, in 1846, greatly lightening the work in the home. In a few years the machine was being sold by tens of thousands. More and more clothing began to be made in factories. Dresses, shirts, and even collars and hats were stitched by machinery instead of by hand. After a few years machines were built that would stitch through leather. Then shoes began to be made in factories on machines, instead of by hand in small shops. A

workman using a machine could make many more shoes than a workman without one. Shoes became less and less costly, so that more and more people had good shoes to wear.

A method of using *rubber* for making things waterproof was discovered about the same time by Charles Goodyear. Boots and shoes were made of it, and raincoats, and other goods.

Matches, already invented in Europe, were introduced into this country. The use of *ether* was discovered in 1846. A patient who had to have a surgical operation could breathe a little of it and have his operation without any pain. In 1846 Richard M. Hoe invented the *rotary press*. By means of it books and newspapers were printed more quickly than ever before in the history of the world. A means of making *photographs* was devised



AN EARLY SEWING-MACHINE INVENTED
BY ELIAS HOWE

about 1850; also the *passenger elevator*. In fact, the United States Patent Office was kept busy making records of the new inventions which were being thought of.

Between 1830 and 1860 the United States began to resemble the modern world in which we live. Our railroads today are much bigger and safer, and trains go faster than they did in 1830 or 1840; but the small lines built in those early days contained the whole idea of the railroad. Farm machinery and sewing-machines and the telegraph have been improved again and again, but the original machines started the whole process of improvement.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Compare and contrast Eli Whitney's invention with Cyrus McCormick's as to its influence and importance.

2. Comment on the significance of the following inventions: the iron plow, the sewing-machine, matches, the rotary press, the passenger elevator, and the telegraph.

3. Show McCormick's wisdom in building his factory in Chicago.

4. Point out the importance in present-day life of Charles Good-year's discovery and the discovery of the use of ether.

5. Be sure to read "When Reapers were New," "The Story of the Plow," and "Prairie Agriculture," in *The Story of Agriculture in the United States*, by A. H. Sanford.

3. HOW THE FACTORY SYSTEM CHANGED BETWEEN
1830 AND 1860

Some Causes of Factory Growth. Even as late as 1860 the chief industry in the United States was agriculture. Cheap, fertile land was still to be had in plenty. At the same time, however, new interests were calling for attention. The census of 1860 showed that one million three hundred thousand people were working in factories and shops. It showed that this great army of workmen were turning out products worth nearly two billion dollars. Apparently the factory worker was ready to challenge the farmer for the position of the most productive American citizen.

It is necessary, therefore, to find out what caused the growth of the manufacturing industry. What products were made? Who made them? Where were they made?

We have already noticed the growth of cotton manufacturing about the time of the War of 1812 (see page 309). For a time after the war, American industry did not prosper; but after 1830, and particularly after 1840, progress was made almost every year. Some of the causes of this change can easily be thought of:

Transportation. Most important were the canals, steamboats, and railroads. These brought heavy materials to the factory town — lumber, coal, and ore. In the same way, the manufactured goods were carried off to the various parts of the country. No great increase in manufacturing was possible until quick, cheap transportation was near.

Increased population. The increasing population supplied the necessary employees. Many of these were immigrants who did not wish to become farmers. Perhaps a still larger labor supply was found in the native-born women, girls, and children who took up the work in the factories.

Inventions. Americans have always been rather inventive people, and between 1830 and 1860 they were producing many new ideas. Most of these were intended to improve machinery by making it work faster or more smoothly or more safely. Yankee ingenuity was producing at top speed between 1850 and 1860. During these years thirty-six times as many patents ¹ were issued every twelve months as had been issued each year before the War of 1812.

Cotton and Woolen Manufactures. The growth of the factory system from 1830 to 1860 was clearly seen in the cotton and woolen mills. Steamboats, canals, and railroads brought the cotton and wool to the factories. Men, women, and children went to the factory towns to work. Inventors made better and faster machinery. The result was that the value of cotton manufactures was two and a half times as great in 1860 as it was in 1840, and the value of the products of the woolen mills was three times as great. A small army of one

¹ When anybody thinks of a new machine or a new method of making anything, he may ask the government to give him a "patent." A patent is a statement from the government which tells who first got the right to make the new machine and which forbids other people to manufacture it without permission. For example, on the receiver of my telephone are the words "Patented in the United States of America, December 4, 1900." This was the date when a patent was issued for certain improvements which had been made in the receiver. Nobody may use these improved ideas without the permission of the inventor.

hundred and seventy thousand people were at work in the cotton and woolen mills in 1860, chiefly in New England.

In spite of all these improvements, however, Americans were forced to buy their best cloth from abroad. We produced mainly the cheaper grades.

The Metal Trades. Metal workers are especially dependent on improved transportation. The raw materials which they require — the coal and the ore — are bulky and heavy. Their products also are generally too heavy to be carried long distances except in boats and trains.

The canals after 1825 and the railroads after 1830 made possible the development of metal work. Heavy machinery was made, such as looms for the textile mills. Small things, such as axes, tools, and nails, were manufactured. Southern New England made tinware, clocks, and brass goods for the Yankee peddler to sell everywhere. The use of coal created a great demand for iron stoves (three hundred thousand of them in the single year 1850), and the old-fashioned fireplace went quickly out of style.

The growth of the railroads made necessary the manufacture of heavy iron rails, engines, and freight cars and so gave Pennsylvania one of its chief industries.

Labor Unions. The growth of factory industry gave the United States its labor question. The workers saw the factory owners getting rich, and they wanted their pay raised. They saw the public schools being started, and they wanted their children to have the advantages of an education. About 1827 the workingmen began to form unions and ask for free schools, shorter working days, and other improvements. The panic of 1837 put an end to many of the labor unions, because large numbers of men were thrown completely out of work. The unions were formed again during the forties, and again they were hindered by a period of poor business which began in 1857. Nevertheless, the laboring man knew what

he wanted — better pay, shorter hours, and an education for his children. The time would soon come when he would organize again and ask for reforms.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. List the chief causes of the rapid growth of factories between 1830 and 1860. Discuss each briefly.
2. Explain what is meant by the expressions "patented December 4, 1900," "patent applied for," and "patent pending."
3. Show how manufacturing and transportation depend one upon the other for rapid growth and permanent existence.
4. Discuss in a brief floor talk the effects of the panics of 1837 and 1857 on labor unions.

4. HOW HOME MANUFACTURING CAME TO AN END

The Decline of Home Manufacturing. We remember that Benjamin Franklin ordinarily wore clothes which had been made in his own home by his wife. A little later Washington had some of his clothes made on his plantation, although his best things were imported from England. Even as late as the War of 1812 most people made not only their own clothes but other things as well. If they bought tools or wagons or other manufactured articles, they at least kept them in repair themselves. Then came the growth of factories. From the end of the War of 1812 up to 1860 the amount of manufactured goods turned out by the factories was constantly on the increase.

After 1830 the railroads spread out over the country. They could carry quickly and cheaply the goods made in the manufacturing towns. Gradually factory-made goods were found in all the large cities and in the towns, and at last in the country. While this was going on, the manufacturing that had been done in the home declined, of course. Just how

did this happen? What became of the people who used to make things in their homes, but could no longer do so when the factories made things so easily and cheaply? The answers to these questions show how greatly the life of people changed between the end of the War of 1812 and the year 1860.

The Traveling Workman. Some of the people who had made manufactured articles in their own homes became traveling workmen, or "itinerant" workmen, as they are sometimes called. These men went from house to house or from town to town, just as today we sometimes see a scissors-grinder or a hand-organ man going from place to place. The itinerant workman might make candles or shoes or clothes.

The Small Shop. In the course of time many of the traveling workmen settled down and established little shops in some village or city. Here they made their goods, and received in payment either money or something else which they wanted, such as wool, meat, eggs, or grain.

Sometimes these little shops grew into small mills or factories. These ground grain for all the farmers in the country round, or they sawed lumber, or they made wool, sent in by the neighboring sheep-owners, into woollen cloth.

In these various ways the farmer got his manufactured goods without making them himself. He grew grain or vegetables and kept poultry and cattle or sheep. The products which he got in these ways he exchanged for the manufactured goods made by the traveling workman or in the small shop.

How Far had this Change gone by 1860? The time when the several parts of the country gave up homemade goods and got them from the shops or factories varied greatly. New England was first to give up homemade things. By 1830 the families were going into the mill towns to work. By 1860 the process that had begun first in New England had extended all over the United States. Of course the process was not the same in all parts of the Union, and of course it did not come

to an end everywhere at the same time. Even in 1860 there were parts of the country where many people wore cloth which was made in the home. Nevertheless, by 1860 factory-made tools, clothes, shoes, flour, and other things were much more common than homemade goods.¹

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. The industrial revolution in England was the change from the household system of manufacturing to the factory system. Show that the industrial revolution in the United States was essentially the same thing.

2. Show why the end of the family factory came more slowly in some sections of the country than in others.

3. Mention a number of "left-overs" of the family factory that we still have with us.

4. Find out from Rolla M. Tryon's *Household Manufactures in the United States*, chap. viii, the value of household manufactures in your own state for the years 1840, 1850, and 1860. You might be able to find the same material for the whole country.

UNIT IV. NEW INTERESTS IN INTELLECTUAL AND RELIGIOUS AMERICA

The development of the factories after the War of 1812 interested many people and took up a great deal of time and attention. So also did the migrations to the West, and the political disputes, especially in Jackson's time. Despite these interests, however, a few people had time to write and read books and to pay some attention to other things not connected with industry and politics. Some of these things ought to be mentioned, for they became increasingly important as time went on.

¹ A good example of this fact is an Illinois boy named Abraham Lincoln. In 1830 he wore homemade clothes which were colored with the juice of walnuts. In the late fifties he went to New York to speak at a public meeting. He had a suit of "store clothes" and some black gloves. Apparently he was more comfortable in the homemade clothes stained with walnut juice!

1. WHO WERE THE FAMOUS WRITERS AND ORATORS OF THE TIME?

Between the close of the Revolution and the end of the War of 1812 most Americans were busy with three great tasks: clearing the boundless forests, working hard for a bare living, and starting the new governments in towns, states, and nation. Writing and reading books was out of the question under such conditions. Few had the ability to write, and few had the leisure to spend in reading. The small number of men who wrote books that are still ranked high wrote about government, as Alexander Hamilton did. Just after the War of 1812, however, there appeared a small group of authors whose writings were read rather widely.

Irving, Cooper, and Bryant.¹ Washington Irving was the first successful American writer. Some of his stories were about Europe, but his best ones were about American subjects. One was a story about the Catskill Mountains, in New York — the story of "Rip Van Winkle." Another was laid in the Hudson valley and was about a schoolmaster; this was entitled "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow."

James Fenimore Cooper wrote stories which were more fully American than those of Irving. He had spent his boyhood in a frontier settlement in northern New York. There he came to know the woods, the animals, and the Indians. Then he went to sea. Finally he settled down to the writing of books. One was *The Spy*, a story about the Revolution; another was *The Pilot*, a sea story. Best of all were the five Leather-Stocking Tales, about Indians, hunters, trappers, and the woods. Since that time thousands upon thousands of boys and girls all over the world have read Cooper's stories about the woods and Indians in the America of early times.

¹ Washington Irving was born in 1783 and died in 1859. James Fenimore Cooper was born in 1789 and died in 1851. William Cullen Bryant was born in 1794 and died in 1878.

One of our three early writers was William Cullen Bryant, a poet. Bryant wrote about American things too. One of his best poems was about one of the wild birds that were common in his time. It was entitled "To a Waterfowl":

Whither, midst falling dew,
While glow the heavens with the last steps of day,
Far, through their rosy depths, dost thou pursue
Thy solitary way?

Seek'st thou the plashy brink
Of weedy lake, or marge of river wide,
Or where the rocking billows rise and sink
On the chafed ocean-side?

Other Early American Writers. Other writers devoted themselves to writing about the things which they saw around their own homes. John Howard Payne wandered over much of the world and then wrote the song "Home, Sweet Home." In 1815 the *North American Review* was started, in order to provide Americans with a magazine of their own. A little later J. J. Audubon wrote the *Birds of America*. Many other writers were rather poor compared with the great foreign writers of the time.

Story-Writers of the Forties and Fifties. Between 1840 and 1850 more famous writers were at work in the United States than ever before. Among them were several of the best story-writers America has produced. Nathaniel Hawthorne wrote *The House of the Seven Gables*, *Twice-Told Tales*, and other stories that have delighted American children and grown-ups ever since. The South and the Southern Indians were woven into stories by William Gilmore Simms. Edgar Allan Poe wrote short stories, such as "The Gold Bug," which are still read everywhere.

Several favorite American poets also belong to these years. Thousands of people committed to memory bits of the poetry

of Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, who wrote about the early Massachusetts settlers and about the New England life of his day. Almost everyone — especially in New England — could repeat these lines :

Under a spreading chestnut-tree
The village smithy stands ;
The smith, a mighty man is he,
With large and sinewy hands ;
And the muscles of his brawny arms
Are strong as iron bands.

And children coming home from school
Look in at the open door ;
They love to see the flaming forge,
And hear the bellows roar,
And catch the burning sparks that fly
Like chaff from a threshing-floor.

And there was John Greenleaf Whittier, who described the life of our ancestors in the days when fireplaces instead of stoves and furnaces were used to heat the houses :

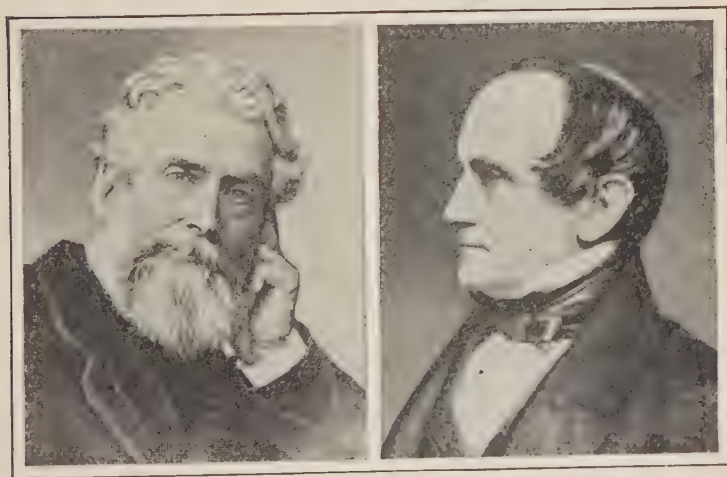
Shut in from all the world without,
We sat the clean-winged hearth about,
Content to let the north-wind roar
In baffled rage at pane and door,
While the red logs before us beat
The frost line back with tropic heat ;
And ever, when a louder blast
Shook beam and rafter as it passed,
The merrier up its roaring draught
The great throat of the chimney laughed.

Historians and Orators. The years after 1840 were the years when Americans began to write the history of their own and other countries. George Bancroft wrote about the American colonies and the Revolution ; Palfrey wrote about New England ; Prescott, about South America ; Motley, about Holland ;



WILLIAM H. PRESCOTT

GEORGE BANCROFT



JOHN L. MOTLEY

JOHN G. PALFREY

Famous writers at the middle of the nineteenth century

Parkman, about Canada and the days of La Salle, Champlain, and Marquette.

Some of the most famous American orators also belonged to this same time. Edward Everett was one of them, and so was Wendell Phillips. The greatest was Daniel Webster, the same Webster who had shared the debate over nullification with Hayne. For many years thousands of American boys and girls recited parts of Webster's greatest speeches, especially the last lines of the reply to Hayne :

... everywhere, spread all over in characters of living light, blazing on all its ample folds, as they float over the sea and over the land, and in every wind under the whole heavens, that other sentiment, dear to every true American heart — Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable!

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. It is a peculiar coincidence that so many of America's greatest literary men should have been born within a period of a few years. How many of those listed below were born between 1800 and 1815? In each case the first date is that of the man's birth; the second, that of his death.

Edward Everett, 1794-1865; Daniel Webster, 1782-1852; John G. Palfrey, 1796-1881; William H. Prescott, 1796-1859; George Bancroft, 1800-1891; Ralph Waldo Emerson, 1803-1882; Nathaniel Hawthorne, 1804-1864; William G. Simms, 1806-1870; Henry W. Longfellow, 1807-1882; John G. Whittier, 1807-1892; Oliver Wendell Holmes, 1809-1894; Edgar Allan Poe, 1809-1849; Wendell Phillips, 1811-1884; John L. Motley, 1814-1877; James Russell Lowell, 1819-1891; Francis Parkman, 1823-1893.

Make a table which will show how many of these men were born before 1800, how many were living in 1840, and how many were living after 1865.

2. Explain why writers and artists are so scarce in a new country.

3. Compare the things about which Irving, Cooper, Bryant, and Audubon wrote.

4. "The Story-Writers of the Forties and Fifties." Discuss in a brief floor talk.

5. Make a list of all persons mentioned in the foregoing discussion of writers and orators. Identify each in a sentence or two.

2. WHAT WERE THE NEW IDEAS IN EDUCATION?

Plans for Better Schools. At the present day all children on becoming five or six years of age expect to go to school for a number of years. They go about nine months in each twelve. They have plenty of textbooks, and the teachers have been trained for their work. After they have finished the lower schools, many go on still farther to high schools, and some to college. Things were different during the twenty or thirty years before 1860. If we could have visited some of the schools of that day, what should we have seen?

Everywhere we should have found plans for the future being made. People everywhere wished to have an education, but the cost was too great for a new and poor country. In Massachusetts, Horace Mann was urging the state to improve the schools and to set up institutions for training teachers. In Ohio and in some of the Southern states, such as Virginia, the legislatures made plans for more and better schools to which everybody might go. These plans showed what the people wanted to have rather than what they actually got. America was still far behind European countries in its educational system.

The Lower Schools, 1830-1860. The lower-school buildings generally contained only one room. There might be fifteen pupils or twenty or thirty, their ages ranging all the way from the smallest beginners of five or six to big boys and girls eighteen or twenty years old. The pupils brought whatever books they had, and frequently no two were alike. The subjects studied were usually reading, writing, arithmetic, and spelling. Noah Webster had published a spelling-book in the

very year when the Revolution ended, and this was widely used; in fact, it has been estimated that fifty million copies of the book have been sold since 1783. The teacher of the school generally lived at the homes of his pupils, staying a few weeks at each house. Discipline was often harsh, and even cruel.

When the great number of immigrants began to come in during the forties and fifties, people began to demand more



MOUNT HOLYOKE SEMINARY

Founded in 1837; a pioneer school for the higher education of women

schools. The immigrants, while often ignorant, wished education for their children, although they were too poor to pay for it. It was not until after 1860, however, that the schools to which we are accustomed began to be established.

High Schools and Colleges, 1830-1860. A few public high schools were begun, but not many. There was one in Boston in 1821 and one in Philadelphia in 1839. In most places, if a pupil wanted more education than the lower schools gave, he either had a private tutor or went to a private academy.

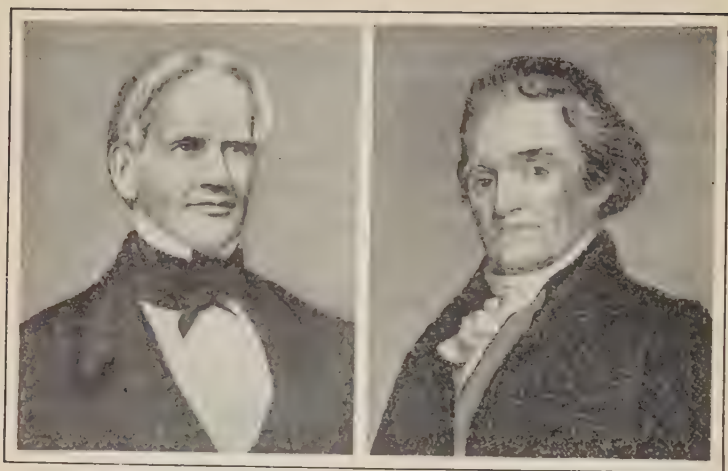
Numerous colleges were being started. Whenever new Western states were admitted to the Union, they drew up

plans for state universities. Ohio, Indiana, and Michigan took such steps early in their history.

In earlier days girls were not admitted to colleges; but in 1837 Mary Lyon started a seminary for girls at Mount Holyoke, Massachusetts; another was established at Troy, New York, by Emma Willard; and a third, the Wesleyan Female College, in Macon, Georgia. Some of the newer colleges, such as that at Oberlin, Ohio, admitted both men and women.

As a result of the work of Horace Mann and others most children had a little schooling, but only a little. Most of them learned to read and spell and to do simple problems in arithmetic. Scarcely one pupil in a hundred went on to the colleges. Nevertheless a great deal of reading was done. Most people had only a few books, but they read them over and over again until they knew them thoroughly. Hence America produced more students than might have been possible under other conditions.

Magazines and Newspapers. As a rule, magazines and newspapers have exerted a great deal of influence in the United States. Newspapers have existed from colonial times. After the War of 1812 the growth of the country made the demand for magazines and newspapers greater than ever. Among the magazines *Niles' Weekly Register*, the *North American Review*, and the *Southern Literary Messenger* were important. To be sure, no such great numbers of people read these magazines as read the periodicals of today. During the thirties the daily newspaper costing only one cent began to be published. The first one was the *New York Sun*, in 1833. This was followed by the *New York Herald*, the *New York Tribune*, and the *New York Times*. The printing-press was being improved; the telegraph, invented in 1844, brought news quickly; and the railroads carried the papers to great distances in a short time. Moreover, the increasing numbers of people who were learning to read in the schools made a greater demand for papers.



HORACE MANN

NOAH WEBSTER



EMMA WILLARD

MARY LYON

Pioneer educators at the middle of the nineteenth century

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Make a "then" and "now" table for education in the eighteen-fifties and at the present day.

ITEMS	THEN	NOW
<i>a.</i> Buildings		
Size	-----	-----
How heated	-----	-----
<i>b.</i> Age of pupils	-----	-----
<i>c.</i> Subjects	-----	-----
<i>d.</i> Discipline	-----	-----
<i>e.</i> Games played	-----	-----
<i>f.</i> Number of high schools	-----	-----
<i>g.</i> Number of colleges	-----	-----

2. Tell for what Horace Mann, Mary Lyon, and Emma Willard are remembered.

3. Using the following data, make a bar diagram showing the increase in the number of newspapers and magazines between 1810 and 1860:

DATE	NUMBER
1810	359
1830	1403
1850	2526
1860	4051

4. Read *The Story of Mary Lyon*, by H. O. Stengel (see page 403).

3. HOW RELIGION INFLUENCED MANY LIVES

America a Religious Country. The United States has always been a religious country. In fact, as we know, one of the reasons why many colonists migrated to America in early times was to escape religious persecution.

After the War of 1812 the churches in America began to send missionaries to all parts of the world. Their purpose was to convert the people of these foreign countries to the Christian religion.

The growth of immigration increased the strength of many of the churches. This was especially true of the Catholic

Church. Most of the Irish and some of the Germans who made up the great migration beginning in 1848 belonged to this organization.

Itinerant Preachers. When people migrated across the Appalachian Mountains, the preachers went with them. Many preachers were "itinerants"; that is, they went from house to house and from settlement to settlement preaching wherever they could find any listeners. It is said that Bishop Asbury, a Methodist preacher, traveled three hundred thousand miles on horseback and by carriage and preached thousands of sermons. Asbury and other preachers commonly carried copies of the Bible with them and gave them to anybody who wished to read. The number of members in the various churches increased greatly as the result of the work done by the itinerants. Sunday schools were opened up in considerable numbers at this time.

Better Treatment of Unfortunates. Before 1830 criminals were treated with great severity in the United States. Sometimes they were publicly whipped, and parts of their ears cut off; sometimes they were sold to an employer who could make them work without wages for years. Prisoners, even before they were convicted of crime, were put into rooms which were so filthy that cattle would scarcely be kept in them today. People who owed even a few dollars and could not pay the debt were put into prison. Many thousands of men were treated in this way, and their families were left without any support. Public whipping died out, and imprisonment for debt was gradually given up.

Another disgrace was the condition of such unfortunate people as the deaf, the dumb, the blind, and the insane. The insane had been treated with special cruelty, being sometimes shut in dark rooms for months or even years. No attempt was made to cure them. About 1830 these conditions began to be changed.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. "The United States has always been a religious country." Cite instances in our history before 1860 which show the truth of this statement.

2. Do we have itinerant preachers today? Explain your answer.

3. Mention some conditions with respect to the treatment of criminals and the deaf, blind, dumb, and insane in the eighteen-thirties which do not exist now.

4. Now is the time to report on the books read by members of the class from the Story-Book Library on pages 343 and 344. Let the class decide how reports are to be made.

UNIT V. THE UNITED STATES IN THE FIFTIES

Between 1850 and 1860 the United States had increased in population from twenty-three million to thirty-one million. That means that ways had been found to feed eight million newcomers, in addition to clothing them and building houses, schools, and churches for them. Many of the eight million came from abroad — especially from England, Ireland, and Germany. They had to become accustomed to American ways.

The migration to the West went on, as we have seen it go on in the earlier part of the nineteenth century.

Moreover, at the end of the decade something happened which greatly changed American history. All these things make the years 1850-1860 both important and difficult to understand.

If we could have taken a long journey over the United States between 1850 and 1860, what should we have noticed? What were the people doing in the Northeast, in the South, and in the West? What should we have seen that was different from earlier days or from today?

1. WHAT WERE THE PEOPLE DOING IN THE NORTHEAST?

In the Northeast — from the District of Columbia to the state of Maine — we should have noticed many new developments. It was still true that most people lived in the country and cultivated the soil, but the cities were growing fast. In New England the farmers were finding it difficult to sell their products at a profit in the cities. The reason was that the new-made railroads were bringing farm products from the great fertile farms in the West; the Western farmer had better land than the New Englander; he could grow and sell things more cheaply. Hence large numbers of New Englanders left their farms. Sometimes the farmer and his family moved to the West; more often they moved to the city to work in the factories.¹

The Eastern Cities. We already know how fast the East was developing its manufacturing. Waterfalls were being harnessed to run the little gristmills, the larger cotton mills, and the shops where shoes, metal goods, and machines were being made. We should have seen many of these mills in southern New England, as well as in New York and Pennsylvania, especially in the regions of Philadelphia and Pittsburgh. The rapid growth of these and other cities made new problems. Both the foreigners and the native Americans were frequently inclined to break the laws. Street fights were common; in some of the cities there were groups of men who roamed the streets and made life unsafe. Philadelphia and New York were compelled to start a police force. Before this time there had been a few watchmen here and there without uniforms, but now there was to be a regular uniformed squad of police to keep order all the time. This was in the early fifties. Another new idea was a city fire department. Before

¹ It is a peculiar fact that more land was cultivated in New England in 1850 than at the present time, and more was cultivated in the states between New York and Maryland in 1880 than today.

this time anybody could run to a fire and try to put it out. In reality many thieves went to fires merely to steal everything they could lay hands on in the burning house. Now a few cities began to have paid fire departments. Another new thing was the horse car. Before this time the only conveyances in the city streets had been omnibuses. Beginning in



TREMONT STREET, IN BOSTON, SHOWING AN EARLY TYPE OF HORSE CAR

From an old print

New York, tracks began to be laid in the streets, on which small passenger cars were drawn slowly by horses or mules.

Labor and Wages. We should have been surprised at the hours of labor, as well as the wages which workmen received. Workmen in New England complained that they had to go to work at five in the morning and labor until seven at night, with only half an hour off for breakfast and half or three quarters of an hour for dinner. Women and children worked the same long hours. Wages were small; the mills were dirty and badly lighted; and dangerous, swiftly moving machinery was unguarded, so that accidents were frequent.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. List three improvements that the larger Eastern cities made between 1850 and 1860. Show the importance of each in present-day life.
2. Show in what respects the Northeast had changed by 1860 and explain the reasons for the changes.
3. Compare the laboring man of the eighteen-fifties with the laboring man of today with respect to hours of labor, wages, condition of factories, and provision against accidents.

2. HOW THE SOUTH LOOKED IN THE FIFTIES

City and Country. In our trip through the South between 1850 and 1860 we should have seen only a few cities. Richmond in Virginia, Charleston in South Carolina, Atlanta in Georgia, New Orleans in Louisiana, Louisville in Kentucky, and Memphis in Tennessee were the chief cities. Otherwise the South was composed of large farms.

The distances between farmhouses would probably have struck us as they did Daniel Webster. Webster was accustomed to living in New England, which was covered with cities and towns. Once, however, he was traveling in Virginia, and the houses were so far apart that he wondered where the people could possibly be who elected representatives to Congress.

We should have seen few factories and not many railroads. The tools which we should have seen in the fields were made in the Northeast or across the Atlantic; so also were the carpets and the furniture in the houses, the dolls which the little girls played with, and the tops which the boys were spinning.

In the fields rice was growing in some places, tobacco in many, and cotton almost everywhere. More than two and a half million bales of cotton were sent to England each year. Whole cities abroad looked to the South for cotton to use

in their mills, and several million people depended on these factories for their living. Other enormous amounts were sent to the northeastern part of the United States.

Houses and People. Not many of the people in the South were wealthy. Those who were well-to-do lived in large houses with wide verandas. As a rule the wealthy Southern planter



A SOUTHERN MANSION IN THE FIFTIES

From "Dixie," one of The Chronicles of America Photoplays. Copyright. By permission, Yale University Press

was generous, hospitable, and brave. Perhaps he was a little fonder of a dispute than the average Northerner. He had not had so much education in books as the average man of the Northeast, but he was more accustomed to horses and dogs and to outdoor life. We should have found him interested in his plantation, in his family, and in politics. The poorer classes lived in small, rough cabins and grubbed a poor living out of soil which was not fertile enough to grow good crops.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Compare the South and the Northeast in the eighteen-fifties with respect to (1) cities; (2) distances between farmhouses; (3) factories; (4) railroads; (5) furniture in houses; (6) products grown; (7) dwelling-houses; (8) occupations of the poorer classes.

2. Account for the fact that more young men from the South went to the English universities in the forties and fifties than went from the North.

3. You will enjoy reading "Life and Activities in the Ante-Bellum Cotton Kingdom," in E. C. Brooks's *Story of Cotton and the Development of the Cotton States*, chap. ix, and "The Cotton Kingdom," in A. H. Sanford's *Story of Agriculture in the United States*, chap. xvi.

3. WHAT WAS GOING ON IN THE WEST?

Life and Culture in the West. Even as late as 1850 the people in the states from Ohio to Iowa lived under hard conditions, especially in the rural districts. In some places the Indian was still to be seen. Farmers were still in debt and trying hard to pay for their land. The distances to towns and markets were great. Men, women, and children worked on the farms from early morning until late at night.

The number of people living in one-room log cabins would have surprised us, although there were, of course, many large frame houses. Furniture was crude; amusements were rough and frequently dangerous; the boys and the young men indulged in frequent fighting in which injury and even death sometimes resulted. It is difficult to imagine the dangers which the Westerner constantly faced. At that time, when doctors were few and far between, what suffering resulted because aid could not be promptly obtained! What crude home surgery must have been practiced when the father or one of the boys cut his foot with the ax or suffered a broken arm or leg while cutting down trees in the woods! Malarial fever was common. Most people apparently expected to suffer from it

part of every year, and anybody who came from the East with drugs which would help to stop the fever was hailed as a bringer of blessings.

The Changing West. The most astonishing thing about the West was the way it was changing. Everywhere people were experimenting with farm machinery in the attempt to find new ways of doing their work more quickly. The produce



A HERD OF BUFFALOES

Although numerous in the early period of American history, these animals were nearly all killed off by 1885. The few which were left were protected by law, and there are now large herds in such places as the Yellowstone National Park

which they grew increased accordingly. The following is an extreme case which shows what was going on in many places :

In 1838 Chicago sent thirty-nine sacks of wheat to Buffalo.

In 1860 the same city sent twenty thousand bushels of grain toward the East on the Great Lakes.

The railroads were opening the West so that the farmer could get his goods to Eastern cities. Elementary schools, colleges, and a few medical schools were being opened. Hence the West was a pioneer section in some places and very much

settled in others. Some parts were very backward, and others were very much abreast of the times; some parts were as rural as in the days of the War of 1812, and others were as modern as any part of the East.

In the Far West. West of Iowa, Missouri, Arkansas, and Texas lies about half the area of the United States. As early as 1850, population had not yet spread very greatly into this Far West. Indians roamed over the mountains and plains. Buffaloes grazed about in huge herds, hundreds of thousands of animals in a single group.

If we had traveled from St. Louis to San Francisco, we should have seen other travelers on the way to the gold fields. We should have seen the Mormons beginning their settlements in Utah. In California we should probably have caught the gold fever and have rushed to the mines with thousands of others. If we had gone through New Mexico, we should have seen a few Spanish settlements there. Aside from these, however, and a few other groups of people we could have roamed over hundreds of thousands of square miles of country without meeting a soul except the Indians.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Numbers 17, 20, and 21 of the Day-by-Day Reference Library on page 342 contain excellent material on the West between 1830 and 1865. Get acquainted with these books and tell the class about them.
2. Give a three-minute floor talk on the West in the fifties.
3. What difficulties did the Westerner meet in 1850 that remind you of the difficulties of colonial life?
4. Explain what the Far West was in 1850 and tell what a traveler from St. Louis to San Francisco would have seen.
5. Read "Across the Plains in 1846," in J. T. Faris's *Real Stories from Our History*, chap. xxvi.

4. WHAT CONDITIONS EXISTED WITH RESPECT TO TRANSPORTATION, COMMERCE, AND IMMIGRATION?

The Railroads. Everywhere in the United States in the fifties the people were talking about railroads. The number of miles of track grew from nine thousand to thirty thousand in ten years. All the large cities and many of the smaller ones were



WESTERN TRANSPORTATION AS POSED FOR A RECENT PHOTOGRAPH

An Indian with his pony; an ox cart; an early stage; and the first train that ran on the Northern Pacific Railroad in 1852. Copyright by Underwood and Underwood

now connected with one another. Through lines were being finished between the Atlantic coast and the cities of the Mississippi Valley. Great quantities of grain and of other food products began going east to the big cities and to Europe. People began to travel more. Sleeping-cars came gradually into use. Improvements were made in cars and locomotives. Great sections of the country were still remote from the railroads, of course, and most people still lived far from the cities; but at least a start had been made.

Commerce. The ten years between 1850 and 1860 were a period when commerce developed fast. The small boy who stood on the wharf at a Northern port, such as Boston or New York, watching the ships load and unload, soon learned what they were carrying. He saw great bales of cotton and tobacco from the South come in; he saw Western grain and meat being unloaded. Then he saw these ships being filled with goods manufactured in Northern mills, such as cloth, sewing-machines, tools, furniture, and rails. If he lived in railroad towns such as Albany or Buffalo or Pittsburgh or Cleveland or Cincinnati, he saw the same things being carried on long trains of freight cars.

Foreign Trade. The fifteen or twenty years before 1860 are generally considered the banner years in American shipping. American ships were going to all parts of the world, even rivaling England, the greatest shipping nation of those days.

American success was partly due to the "clipper ship." This was an especially fast type of sailing vessel which was first built in 1845. The clippers did a tremendous business carrying goods and people to the California gold fields.

The United States also did a large carrying trade across the Atlantic. The government helped companies to build and run steamships by giving them "subsidies," or payments of money, each year. For a few years this foreign trade became very great. Then it dwindled, for the following reasons:

Two of the largest steamships were lost at sea.

The government stopped giving subsidies.

English shipbuilders saw the advantage of steam vessels and iron hulls earlier than American builders did; hence English shipping got a start over American shipping.

New Inventions. People who are opening a new country need many inventions to help them to get their work done. During the fifties American inventors were patenting new

ideas by the thousand every year. Many of these applied to things that could be used in everyday life.

Machinery for farm and factory was improved.

Printing-presses were constructed which turned out newspapers, books, and all sorts of printed matter more quickly.



THE WINONA, A CLIPPER SHIP OF ABOUT 1860

Copyright by George E. Noyes, Newburyport, Massachusetts

Petroleum was discovered in western Pennsylvania in 1859. Means were found to purify it and make kerosene oil. Oil lamps were made and took the place of candles and whale oil.¹ Within a few years more improvements were made in lighting than had been made in centuries before.

¹ The discovery of oil and the way to purify it, together with the invention of the oil lamp, brought about the decline of whale fishing. Kerosene was better and cheaper than whale oil. As the years went by, and kerosene and lamps became more common, fewer and fewer whalers went out from such famous whaling towns as Nantucket and New Bedford. The harpoons with which the men used to kill the whales, models of whaling vessels, and all kinds of equipment may now be seen in museums in whaling towns. There is an especially good one in New Bedford.

The first telegraphic cable from America to Europe was laid in 1858. It broke down after a few days, but it was repaired and has been successfully operated since 1866.

Never before had business been so prosperous. Even the government at Washington took in more money than it spent. In spite of the payments to Mexico for land and in spite of the expense of the Mexican War, the amount of the public debt became smaller and smaller. Imports from abroad grew bigger. More banks were started. People were spending more money than ever for clothes. Prices went up. Finally people began living beyond their means. Business men bought more goods than they could pay for and sell. In 1857 there were many failures in business. Banks had to shut their doors. Workmen lost their jobs, and for a year or two there was considerable suffering.

Immigration. The twenty-one thousand miles of railroad that were built in the fifties did not build themselves, of course. Laborers had to be found to clear away the trees, to make and lay the ties and rails, and to build the engines, cars, and stations. The demand for workmen became so great that large numbers of immigrants came from abroad, especially from England, Ireland, and Germany. Possibly two and a half million came over between 1850 and 1860, although the exact number is not known.

The English immigrants came chiefly because it was so difficult for poor people at that time to earn a living in England. Most of them settled in the North and West.

The Germans came partly to earn a better living and partly to escape a tyrannical government in Germany. In 1848 there was a revolution in that country which the government put down. After that a large number of the people left for America. Many of them were farmers and went west to such states as Illinois and Wisconsin. Some of them became prominent citizens and were elected to government offices.

The Irish were probably the most numerous. There were severe famines in Ireland in the eighteen-forties, and people starved to death on all sides. As many as could do so escaped to America. There they found work in the factories, on the railroads, and, to a less extent, on the Western farms.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Make a bar diagram to illustrate the increase in railroad mileage between 1840 and 1860. Use the following data:

YEAR	RAILROAD MILEAGE
1840	2,818
1850	9,021
1860	30,626

2. Using the following data, show by means of a bar diagram the increase in immigration into the United States from 1821 to 1860:

DECADES	TOTAL IMMIGRATION
1821-1830	143,439
1831-1840	599,125
1841-1850	1,713,251
1851-1860	2,511,060

3. If you had wished to travel from St. Louis to San Francisco in 1850, how would you have gone? If you had wished to travel from New York to Chicago? from New York to New Orleans? from Charleston, South Carolina, to St. Louis? from New Orleans to San Antonio, Texas?

5. WHAT REFORMS WERE UNDER WAY?

The fifties were a time of much reforming; that is, there were frequent demands for the improvement of conditions. Some people wanted slavery reformed, some wanted labor conditions reformed, and others wanted reforms in other directions. Three of these can be noted here.

Use of Postage Stamps. Before the late forties anybody who wished to mail a letter had to go to the post office and pay the postage in money. There were no stamps, such as



are so common today. The delay may be imagined when a great many people wished to mail letters at once. All had to stand in line before the post-office window and have each letter looked at, weighed, and paid for. But in 1847 the



MARTHA WRIGHT, ELIZABETH STANTON (ABOVE), AND LUCRETIA MOTT

Early leaders in the women's rights movement

government began issuing postage stamps. There were five-cent stamps with a picture of Franklin on them and ten-cent stamps with a picture of Washington.¹

Women's Rights. Another reform movement demanded a change in the position of women. At that time in many parts

¹ In 1851 the rate on ordinary letters was fixed at three cents and in 1883 at two cents.

of the country (perhaps in all), if a married woman had any property it could be used to pay her husband's debts without her consent. If she earned any money, her husband could claim it. Women could not enter such professions as medicine and law. Most colleges were not open to them. They could not vote. Just before 1850 they began to demand the same rights that men had. They held conventions in various parts of the country to stir up interest in their ideas. There



STYLES IN DRESS DURING THE FORTIES AND FIFTIES

Dresses worn by the wives of the presidents. From models preserved in the National Museum, Washington

was such a convention in Seneca Falls, New York, in 1848, called by Lucretia Mott, Martha C. Wright, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, and Mary Ann McClintock. Considerable changes might have been made as the result of all this agitation, but just after the end of the fifties *something happened in the United States which prevented any widespread reforms*. A few small changes were made here and there, but that is all.

The Maine Liquor Law of 1851. Another reform movement concerned the drinking of liquor. Ever since colonial days this had been a great danger. On all kinds of occasions, even building a village church, large amounts of intoxicating liquor

were served. So much harm was done that reformers began urging laws to prevent the making or selling of intoxicating drinks. Finally, in 1851, the state of Maine passed a famous law. It said that nobody in the state should either make or sell liquor. Other states took up the reform. Progress, however, was hindered by the same events that stopped reforms for labor and women's rights.¹

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Make a "then" and "now" table in which you cover the following items:

ITEMS	THEN (The Fifties)	Now
a. Kinds of postage stamps	-----	-----
b. Use of married women's property	-----	-----
c. Colleges open to women	-----	-----
d. Women's suffrage	-----	-----
e. The liquor question	-----	-----

2. Read "The Pony Express," in L. B. Evans's *America First*, pp. 339-344. This tells the story of one important advance in our postal system. Similar stories are found also in *Real Stories from Our History*, by J. T. Faris, and in *The Westward Movement*, edited by C. L. Barstow.

UNIT VI. SLAVERY AND POLITICS

The history of the United States from 1850 to 1860 was not so peaceful as might be indicated by what has just been said. During these years there were more bitter political quarrels, more sneering by one part of the country against other parts, and more angry talk about public affairs than ever before in

¹ During the fifties European travelers constantly made fun of American manners. They said that Americans were crude and boastful. They complained that we were always bragging about having a "free country" while we kept slaves. English visitors thought that our hotels were dirty and uncomfortable and that many Americans were rough and uneducated. Unfortunately the complaints were partly justified. Nevertheless some Americans took great offense at such remarks, although others admitted their defects and set to work to remedy them.

American history. One of the chief causes of this great uproar was the question of slavery in the territories which had been acquired. To understand the struggle in the fifties, a brief review of the general subject of Southern slavery is necessary.

1. WHAT THE SLAVERY SYSTEM WAS

The Beginning of Slavery. Negro slaves were first brought to America, as we already know, in 1619. Laborers were needed, and the negro met the demand. Many people did not like the idea of selling human beings and forcing them to work without being paid. Nevertheless slaves were held both in the North and in the South. Shortly after the Revolution the Northern states gradually began to get rid of their slaves, although there were two hundred and thirty-six in New Jersey as late as 1850. Apparently slave labor was not profitable in the North. It is very possible that slavery might have been given up in the South if it had not been for the cotton gin.

The demand for cotton for the mills of England and New England was very great. The South could grow the cotton; the slaves could do the work on the cotton plantations; hence Southern opposition to slavery died out. In the North, although slavery was fast disappearing, shipowners made good profits carrying negroes from Africa to the Southern states.

A Southern Plantation. A Southern plantation was a large farm on which cotton or tobacco or sugar or rice was grown. The most important crop was cotton. The amount grown in the South averaged one million three hundred thousand bales a year from 1831 to 1860. In 1840 the crop was valued at \$100,000,000.

The buildings on a large plantation consisted of the house in which the owner lived, the usual barns and sheds, and a row of small cabins in which the slaves lived.

Labor on the plantation was relieved now and then by amusements. There were dances, and trips once in a while to some neighboring town to see a circus. 'Possum and 'coon hunts were common. The slaves were fond of music and singing. They played such instruments as the banjo and the fiddle. Christmas was always celebrated as a great holiday.



SLAVE QUARTERS ON A SOUTHERN PLANTATION BEFORE THE CIVIL WAR

From "Dixie," one of The Chronicles of America Photoplays. Copyright.
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Punishments on the plantations depended on the master and the overseers. If they were cruel, then the slaves might be whipped severely for being slow or negligent in their work; if they were more kind, then the slaves might be treated more gently. Some owners even burned marks on their slaves when the latter committed some crime. On the other hand, some whites lived all their lives on plantations without seeing a slave so much as whipped. Some slave-owners were almost as fond of their negroes as they were of their families.

Slaves were bought and sold at auctions like any other property. As the demand for slaves increased, the price grew greater. In 1800 a strong young man who could work in the cotton fields was worth \$200; in 1860 a similar slave would sell at about \$1300. The best Southerners did not like to sell their slaves, and especially did not like to break up a family and sell father, mother, and children to different owners. This was sometimes done, however.

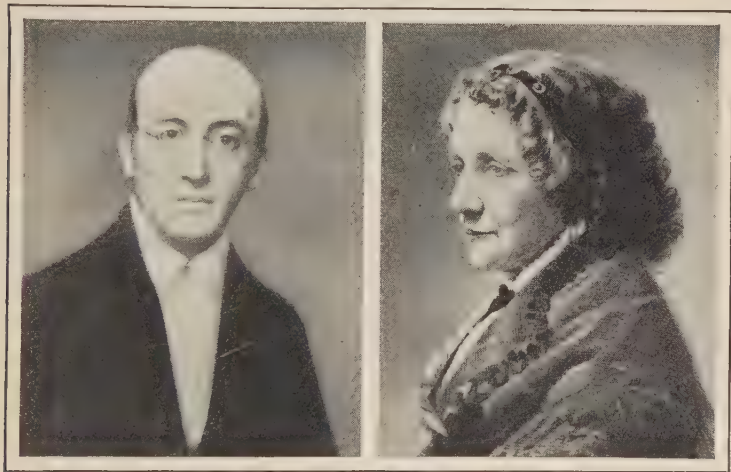
Classes of Slaves. There were two classes of slaves: the house servants and the field hands. The house servants included the negroes who took care of the master's children, did the housework, and performed such necessary tasks as carpentry and blacksmithing. They were generally devoted to their masters and were much liked by the master and his family. The position of the field hands was different. They performed the hard work in the cotton field. Their hours of work were long, from sunrise to sunset. These were the hours that Northern factory hands were accustomed to. Some negroes served as "drivers" and waked up the workers in the morning or drove them to the fields when they were late. Once in the fields, the slaves were directed by white men called overseers, who told them what work to do and saw that they did it.

Northern Opinion of Slavery. Before 1831 the North did not care much whether slaves were held in the United States or not. On January 1, 1831, William Lloyd Garrison started a newspaper called the *Liberator*, the purpose of which was to bring about the freedom of the slaves at once.

Garrison's attack on the South was bitter. He considered every slave-owner as a negro-stealer. He apparently thought that every Southerner owned slaves, that every owner was cruel, and that slaves were being whipped all the time. At first, even in the North, most people disliked Garrison. Then antislavery societies began to be formed in 1832. After a

time more and more thousands of people came to agree with Garrison and to hate slavery.¹ They began to look on all Southerners as wicked and cruel.

Finally, in 1852, Harriet Beecher Stowe published a story entitled *Uncle Tom's Cabin*.² It described the cruel things that might happen to a slave under a cruel master. *Uncle*



WILLIAM LLOYD GARRISON

HARRIET BEECHER STOWE

Two prominent leaders in the antislavery movement

Tom's Cabin was read all over the North, and people there got the idea that the things described in the book were everyday events. The immediate result was that it made the North hate slavery more, while the South got angry over the exaggerated accounts of the sufferings of slaves.

Southern Opinion of Slavery. In the years before the cotton gin was invented many Southerners wished to get rid of

¹ The opening of railroads about this time made it more convenient for people to go considerable distances to attend antislavery meetings. The lower cost of newspapers also helped to spread the ideas of the antislavery people.

² *Uncle Tom's Cabin* was translated into twenty-three foreign languages and was put on the stage as a play. It has always been popular. It was read in England by more than a million people.

slavery. Men like Washington gave freedom to their slaves. Even as late as 1820 many Southerners were ready to admit the evils of slavery, but when Garrison began to call them cruel slave-stealers they began to defend it. They declared that whipping was done only when necessary. They said that the slave was better cared for in sickness, poverty, and old age than the working classes in the North. *Uncle Tom's Cabin* and Northerners who helped runaway negroes to escape increased the dislike of the South for the North.

Moreover, the South felt that freeing the slaves would be a very dangerous thing. Who would feed, clothe, and take care of the slaves if they were freed? Where would they live? Who would work on the plantations? If Garrison should keep on telling the country that the negroes were being cruelly treated, would not the slaves some day start a revolution? Would they not try to kill their masters? This fear in the South was increased by an event in Virginia in 1831. Led by Nat Turner, some negroes got together and killed about sixty white people. Soldiers were gathered, and a short battle resulted. Over a hundred negroes were killed, many were whipped, and some were captured, tried, and hanged. The whole affair naturally frightened the South. They blamed Garrison and his Northern supporters for stirring up the slaves.

The dispute between the North and the South was a dangerous one :

It was getting more bitter every year.

Many people in the North came to look on every Southerner as cruel and wicked.

Many people in the South hated the North because of Garrison, the antislavery societies, and the help given to runaways.

Unless the quarrel could be stopped, the two parts of the country might plunge into war and break up the Union.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of influences and conditions that led to the gradual doing away with slavery in the North. Make a list also of those that fastened slavery more and more tightly on the South.

2. "A Day on a Southern Plantation." Give a floor talk on this topic. Any workday during the year 1850 will do.

3. Now is the time to read *The Story of Harriet Beecher Stowe*, by R. B. MacArthur.

4. Radical reformers sometimes injure the cause that they advocate more than they aid it. Discuss William Lloyd Garrison and Harriet Beecher Stowe in this connection.

5. There is a good account of a Virginia tobacco plantation in *Reminiscences of Peace and War*, by Mrs. Roger A. Pryor, chap. xi.

6. "Slavery in the United States," in Marie L. Herdman's *Story of the United States*, chap. liv, will interest you.

2. HOW THE POLITICAL CONFLICTS OF THE EARLY FIFTIES AROSE AND ENDED

Fugitive Slaves. Slaves were constantly escaping into the North. These and free negroes were continually being chased by the Southern slave-owners. The law said that Northerners must help to return the fugitives, but the Northerners thought the law was wrong. Moreover, the escaped slaves were so helpless and pathetic that the Northerners could not bear to turn them over to slave-catchers, and so they helped the fugitives to get to Canada. This made the Southerners extremely bitter. Even well-known men — clergymen and others — helped to break the Fugitive Slave Law. There was the case of Anthony Burns, an escaped slave who was captured in Boston. A crowd of whites and negroes led by a prominent Bostonian tried to break into the courthouse and rescue Burns. When the court declared that he must be returned to his master in Virginia, it was necessary to have a guard of soldiers to prevent a rescue. Business men shut their

stores, houses were draped in black, and fifty thousand people lined the streets while twenty-two companies of soldiers took one lone negro to the wharf to ship him to Virginia.

The system of helping runaways to escape in the North was called the "underground railroad," as slaves seemed to be carried off to Canada without anybody's knowing how or when.

Kansas and Nebraska, 1854. Then came a political event that caused another uproar. The Democrats won the election of 1852. The new president, Franklin Pierce, was a Northerner, but he was in sympathy with the South.

There was a Democrat in the Senate named Stephen A. Douglas. Douglas was from Illinois. In 1854 he introduced a bill in the Senate to do three things:

Repeal the antislavery part of the Missouri Compromise (see page 322).

Open up two new territories, Kansas and Nebraska.

Let the settlers in the new territories decide whether they would have slavery or not.

This bill would, of course, make slavery possible in Kansas and Nebraska, where it had been forbidden ever since 1820. Hence it would be a victory for the South. Pierce agreed with Douglas.

There was a long and angry debate in Congress. So bitter did the disagreement become that some members were said to carry pistols in their pockets to use in case of attack. Northern members, such as Charles Sumner, Salmon P. Chase, and William H. Seward, roused the people of the North to protest. But it was of no use. The Douglas bill passed, although Douglas himself was viewed as a traitor in the North. Stuffed images of him were burned in bonfires. Ministers in the churches preached about his wickedness; and as long as they lived, many men in the North never forgave him for repealing the Missouri Compromise and opening Kansas and Nebraska to slavery.

But Douglas's Kansas-Nebraska Act merely said that the new territories *might* have slavery if they wished; it did not say they *must* have it. Now came the fight to see whether they would have slavery or not.

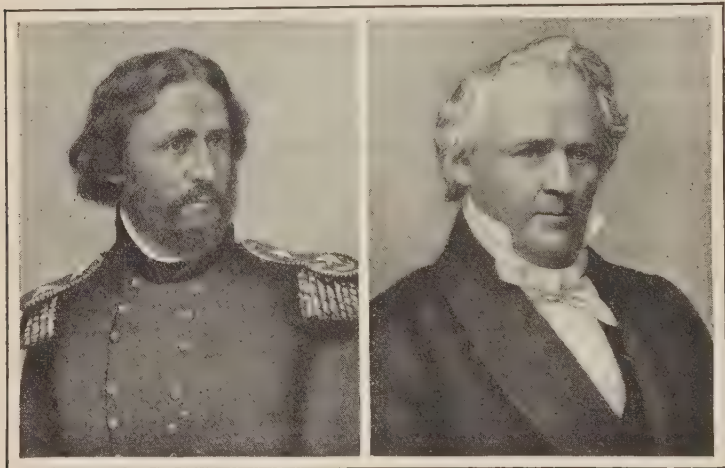
The Fight for Kansas; the Assault on Charles Sumner. Kansas was first opened up for settlement. Proslavery people from Missouri immediately poured over into Kansas to vote that Kansas should be a slaveholding territory. But the North was not ready to let this happen without a fight. Groups of settlers were gathered in New England and elsewhere in the North. They were given food, tools, and rifles and sent out to settle in Kansas and make it a free territory. The two groups — the Missouri proslavery people and the Northern antislavery people — had a small civil war. There was bloodshed and confusion for several years. But when Kansas became a state in 1861, it entered the Union without slavery.

While the struggle was going on in Kansas, Senator Charles Sumner of Massachusetts made a speech in the Senate. He denounced the South bitterly and made slurring remarks concerning some of the Southern members. Two days later Sumner was sitting alone at his desk in the Senate. A Southerner named Brooks came up behind Sumner and beat him over the head with a cane until he was unconscious. The South looked on Brooks as a hero; the North looked on him as a villain. Both the North and the South were getting to the fighting point.

Significant Political Changes, 1854–1856. During the middle fifties the American people were deeply concerned about political events. Three important things were occurring:

The Whig party began to break up. Clay and Webster, its two greatest leaders, had died. More important than that, the party could not decide what to do about slavery. If the party favored slavery, many Northern Whigs would leave it; if it opposed slavery, many Southern Whigs would leave it.

A new party began to form during 1854. Many Northerners were so enraged by the Kansas-Nebraska Act that they held great mass meetings to decide what to do about it. One was held in Ripon, Wisconsin; another, in Jackson, Michigan. These conventions favored a new party which should oppose slavery. People who favored this program began to be called Republicans, a name which has been used ever since.



JOHN C. FRÉMONT

JAMES BUCHANAN

The presidential candidates in 1856

The Democratic party lost strength in the North because some of its members became Republicans, but it made great gains in the South because the Southern Whigs began to turn Democrats.

The Election of 1856. When it came time to choose a president in 1856, great interest was displayed. Would the parties line up on the slavery question? Could the Republicans get many votes?

The Democrats met first in a big convention at Cincinnati. They declared that the people in each territory ought

to decide slavery for themselves. James Buchanan was nominated as the presidential candidate.¹

The Republicans declared that slavery ought to be *forbidden in all the territories*. They nominated John C. Frémont, the same man who had been in California at the time of the Mexican War.

The Democrats won, but there were two important results:

The Republicans cast a much larger number of votes than was expected.

There were no Republican votes in the South. In other words, the Republican party was entirely Northern.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. You meet five persons for the first time in the paragraph on Kansas and Nebraska. Get well acquainted with them.

2. Show the relation between the repeal of the Missouri Compromise and the rapid flow of people to Kansas after 1854.

3. "Why the Whig Party Died." Discuss in a brief floor talk.

4. Argue for or against the stand taken by the Democrats in 1856 with respect to slavery in the territories.

5. Read "The Rescue of Jerry," in L. B. Evans's *America First*, pp. 349-354; also "The Underground Railroad," by Levi Coffin, in *Slavery and the Mexican War (1840-1860)*, pp. 110-115, Vol. VII of Great Epochs in American History.

6. Good discussions of the Kansas-Nebraska Act and what took place in Kansas after its passage are found in *Slavery and the Mexican War (1840-1860)*, pp. 144 ff., Vol. VII of Great Epochs in American History; in *Expansion of the American People*, by E. E. Sparks, chap. xxix; and in *The Story of the United States*, by H. E. Marshall, chap. lxxx. Read one or more of these discussions.

¹ President Buchanan was born in Pennsylvania and was of Scotch descent. He held many public offices before he became president. After serving in the War of 1812 he became a lawyer, and was a member of the legislature in Pennsylvania and then of the United States House of Representatives. Later he was minister to Russia, a senator, Secretary of State under Polk, and minister to England.

3. WHAT POLITICAL CONFLICTS AROSE IN THE LATE FIFTIES AND HOW THEY ENDED

The Dred Scott Decision. The victory of the Democrats in the election of 1856 did not decide the slavery question, for just after the election the Supreme Court had something to say which unsettled everything.

The question which the court had to answer was this: A Missouri slave-owner had taken his slave Dred Scott into the free territory of Minnesota. Did this make Dred Scott free? The Missouri Compromise had said that slaves could not be held in the Louisiana Purchase north of 36° 30'. Would the court allow the Missouri Compromise to stand? The decision of the court was that slaves were property and therefore could be taken into free territories and brought out again like any other property. This meant that slavery could not be forbidden in the territories. But the Republican party was started on the idea that slavery *could be forbidden* in the territories and that it *must be forbidden*; hence the decision of the court roused all the Republicans, and the slavery quarrel became worse than ever. This was in 1857.

The Lincoln-Douglas Debates, 1858. By this time the one subject that everybody was talking about was the forbidding of slavery in the territories. Could slavery be stopped? Or would slavery be extended into free territories? Could it be carried even into the free states? In Illinois a man named Abraham Lincoln challenged Stephen A. Douglas to debate these questions in meetings all over the state. Lincoln was a newcomer in politics, but he was a shrewd debater with a keen mind, and he wished to be elected to the Senate in place of Douglas. Douglas was one of the senators from Illinois. Everybody knew him. He was a little man with such great abilities that he was called the Little Giant. He accepted Lincoln's challenge.

Seven great debates were held. Sometimes ten thousand and even twenty thousand people came to them and listened for hours. They came in trains and in carriages, bringing the whole family and carrying food so as to stay all day and even all night if necessary.

Douglas upheld his idea that the people of the territories ought to be left to settle the question of slavery for themselves.



HARPERS FERRY AS IT APPEARED AT THE OUTBREAK OF THE CIVIL WAR
From an old print

Lincoln declared that the country could not go on half slave and half free. It must become either one or the other. Either slavery would extend everywhere or else freedom would extend everywhere. This was in 1858.

John Brown, 1859. In 1859 came more fuel for the quarrel over slavery. There was a Northerner named John Brown who thought that he could settle the slavery trouble. His scheme was different from all the others. He collected some money from Northern admirers, bought some guns and gunpowder, and brought together a few men to help him. Then

he quietly purchased a farm near Harpers Ferry, on the Potomac River, and brought his men and his supplies there. By that time his scheme was apparent. It was to stir up the slaves, give them guns, and help them to start a war against their masters so as to get their freedom.

One night Brown and his men seized Harpers Ferry and began to rouse the slaves about the region. The slaves, however, did not understand the scheme and were not greatly interested. Some troops were sent out to capture Brown. A short fight resulted; Brown was captured, tried for treason, and hanged.

The South was almost stunned by the Brown incident. Here was a Northerner, supported by Northern men and Northern money, going to the South and trying to stir up the slaves to murder their masters in cold blood. Moreover, the South heard that many Northerners approved of Brown's actions and even thought that he was a great hero. Thus John Brown made the slavery quarrel much more bitter.¹

The Election of 1860. Then came the eventful year 1860, the year for another presidential election. When the Democrats met to nominate a man for the presidency, a bitter wrangle resulted about the position the party should take on slavery. Finally they divided into two groups. The two, with the Republicans, really made three parties:

The Southern Democrats, for the most part, wanted an earnest proslavery man, and they nominated John C. Breckinridge, who believed that the slaves were property and could be taken like other property into the territories.

The Democrats in the middle and the Northern states wanted a man who was less active on the slavery question. They nominated Stephen A. Douglas, who believed that the

¹ The feeling between the North and the South was so keen at that time that when Congress met in 1859 it took several weeks even to elect a presiding officer, or "Speaker," in the House of Representatives. Each side wanted one of its own men to fill that office.

people in each territory should decide the question for themselves. This was the same Douglas who had debated with Lincoln in Illinois.

Meanwhile the Republicans were becoming stronger. When they met to nominate a candidate, they agreed on two points : that a protective tariff should be maintained (this would please some important states, such as Pennsylvania) and that slavery should not be allowed to spread into any more of the territories.

They nominated Abraham Lincoln. This was the same man who had debated against Douglas and had said that the Union could not remain half slave and half free.

When the election took place, Lincoln was elected. In most of the Southern states nobody voted for him ; his supporters were entirely in the North.

The Next Move in the South. Southern leaders had long feared that an antislavery president would be elected by the North, and now it had been done. They had long declared that in such a case the Southern states would leave the Union. Northern leaders pooh-poohed this as a mere threat ; but as soon as Lincoln was elected, the people of South Carolina called a great convention and voted to leave the United States. Then Georgia did the same, and so did Alabama, Mississippi, Florida, and Louisiana — six in all. It looked as if the United States of America — the Union that Benjamin Franklin and George Washington had helped to form, and that had been loved by Alexander Hamilton and Daniel Webster and Clay and Jackson and Calhoun — were going to tumble to pieces.

Summary of the Years from 1850 to 1860. What, then, had the years from 1850 to 1860 done about slavery ?

The Compromise of 1850 had attempted to settle the slavery question, but the North had believed that the Fugitive Slave Law was a wicked law and had refused to obey it.

The Kansas-Nebraska Act had tried to settle it, but had caused war in Kansas.

The Supreme Court had tried to settle it and had enraged the Republicans of the North.

John Brown had attempted it and had lost his life, besides embittering the South.

And then the Republicans had elected a president to stop the spread of slavery, and with what result? The Union was falling to pieces. Who could settle so terrible a quarrel?

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Show how the Dred Scott decision made matters worse with respect to slavery in the territories instead of better.

2. Point out the possibilities of a split in the Democratic party over the status of slavery in the territories.

3. In the presidential election of 1860 Lincoln received in round numbers 1,866,000 votes; Douglas, 1,375,000; Breckinridge, 845,000. Show the results of the election by means of a bar diagram.

4. Read Article III, sect. 3, of the Constitution in Appendix B. Was John Brown a traitor?

5. Read "John Brown at Harper's Ferry," in *Slavery and the Mexican War (1840-1860)*, pp. 177 ff., Vol. VII of Great Epochs in American History.

6. Look up and report to the class James Morgan's account of Taylor, Fillmore, and Buchanan in *Our Presidents*.

UNIT VII. THE CIVIL WAR

The winter of 1860-1861 was a time of confusion in the United States. State after state was announcing that it was leaving the Union, or "seceding," as the expression was. President Buchanan had only a short time to serve, but he was still in power. Lincoln was not yet in office. Everywhere the question was being asked, "Has any state the right to leave the Union?" Some said one thing, and some



THE LINCOLN FAMILY IN 1860

said another. There were no preparations for war, because nobody knew just what to do. The whole army amounted to only sixteen thousand men, and a large part of these men were Southerners. Furthermore, senators and representatives were leaving Washington for their home states; Southern military officers were leaving the army; Southern officials in government offices were giving up their duties. A Federal officer might talk today with another officer about preparation for war; tomorrow one of the two men might have left Washington in order to secede with his state.¹

1. HOW THE WAR BEGAN

"The Confederate States of America." By February 1, 1861, seven of the states had said they were out of the United States for good. Thereupon they sent men to a meeting in Montgomery, Alabama, to draw up a constitution. These men planned the "Confederate States of America," to be made of all the states that would secede. They were to have a flag. Jefferson Davis, a very able senator from Mississippi, was to be president. A constitution was drawn up which was much like that of the United States, with these changes:

There should be no protective tariffs.

There should be no laws preventing the holding of slaves.

After a short time the capital of the Confederate states was removed to Richmond, in Virginia.

The Attack on Fort Sumter. The Confederates now began taking any United States property that remained in the Southern states, such as ammunition, guns, and forts. It happened that there was a small body of United States troops in a fort on the edge of Charleston Harbor, South Carolina.

¹ A young man named Charles Francis Adams, Jr., grandson of President John Quincy Adams, was in Washington during the winter of 1860-1861. He said that even the most prominent men in Washington talked like crazy men — shouting, telling what to do, arguing, and doing everything but think. Adams has an interesting account in his *Autobiography*, chap. iii.

The flag adopted on March 4, 1861, and frequently called the Stars and Bars

The flag carried by General Beauregard. It was most commonly used and was generally known as the Confederate flag

A later flag, which was officially adopted but not commonly used

Another later flag, adopted on February 4, 1865. The red bar was used so that it might not be mistaken for a truce signal



CONFEDERATE FLAGS

The South Carolinians wished to seize the fort. The commander, Robert Anderson, wished to defend it. Out in the harbor was another fort, better placed, named Sumter. Anderson and his men slipped over there one night and made ready for defense. There they stayed while President Buchanan's term ran out and President Lincoln came in on March 4, 1861. The people of South Carolina desired to attack the fort, but they did not wish to be responsible for striking the first blow.¹



THE ALABAMA STATE CAPITOL, IN MONTGOMERY, WHERE THE
CONFEDERATE CONSTITUTION WAS ADOPTED

Lincoln was not sure whether he ought to tell Anderson to leave Sumter or protect it, but finally said that he would send provisions to Anderson. On April 12 the Confederates opened fire on Sumter from the batteries of cannon on the shore. For a day and a half Anderson protected himself, al-

¹ The inauguration of Lincoln occurred while the fate of Sumter was still undecided. In the speech which he made at this time he said that it was his duty to protect United States property, but not to use force against the people except when it was necessary to protect property. Strangely enough, Lincoln's rival, Stephen A. Douglas, sat near him at the inauguration. As Lincoln rose to speak, he looked about for some place to lay his hat. Douglas reached forward and took it. Before 1860 Lincoln was known merely because of his association with the famous Douglas; since then Douglas would have been largely forgotten had it not been for his association with Lincoln.

though he had little ammunition and food and only sixty-five men. On April 14 he had to surrender.

The news of the attack and surrender went over the country with lightning speed. Everywhere in the North, men knew that the South meant war. On the very next day Lincoln gave orders to raise an army of seventy-five thousand soldiers. In the South the attack on Sumter had the



THE INTERIOR OF FORT SUMTER AS IT APPEARED AFTER BOMBARDMENT

same kind of effect. Men had been wondering whether the war would come. Now the question was answered. Troops were gathered and plans were made for war in earnest. The president of the Confederacy, Jefferson Davis, was a graduate of West Point, and a former Secretary of War. He was accustomed to war problems, therefore, and he immediately called for a hundred thousand men.

The fall of Fort Sumter brought other Southern states to the point of deciding whether to join South Carolina. Arkan-

sas, Virginia,¹ North Carolina, and Tennessee determined to go, making eleven in all. Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri were long in doubt, but finally decided to stay in the Union. The population of the eleven seceding states numbered only 9,000,000 (of whom 3,500,000 were slaves), whereas that of the rest of the Union was 22,500,000.

The Purpose of the War. It is a peculiar fact that the Civil War did not commence with the purpose of ending slavery. Slavery did most to bring about the break between the North and the South; but when the break came, it was over the question of secession. Could a dissatisfied state leave the Union? The South said it could; the North said it could not. Many people in Virginia and other states near the North did not care about slavery, but they did believe that they had a perfect right to leave the Union if they wished to. When the North tried to keep the seceding states in the Union, these people decided to go with the South. Among them was Robert E. Lee, a graduate of West Point, an experienced soldier and one of the best officers in the entire country.

The Southern Blockade. As soon as Lincoln had issued a call for soldiers he turned his attention to the sea. The Confederates had a long seacoast, from Virginia to Texas—3549 miles. There were many harbors on the coast. The Confederates expected to load ships in these harbors with cotton, tobacco, and other products and send them abroad. The cotton and tobacco would be exchanged for all sorts of military supplies, which would be brought back to the Southern ports. Lincoln knew all this, and decided to "blockade" the South; that is, to place United States war vessels all along

¹ At the beginning of the war the state of Virginia included what is now West Virginia. The people in that part of the state were so opposed to secession that they formed a separate state, which was admitted to the Union in 1863. There were many who favored the Union side in eastern Tennessee; and many in Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri favored the South. There were many in the North who opposed the war.

the coast and thus prevent any Southern vessel from going in or out. At the beginning he had only twenty-three vessels that were of much use. Old ships, however, were repaired as quickly as possible; new ones were built; others were bought wherever they could be found. Whenever a ship was ready for service, it was sent down the coast to take its place in line. The blockade got tighter and tighter,—how tight will soon be seen.¹

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Tell the story of the formation of the Confederate States of America.

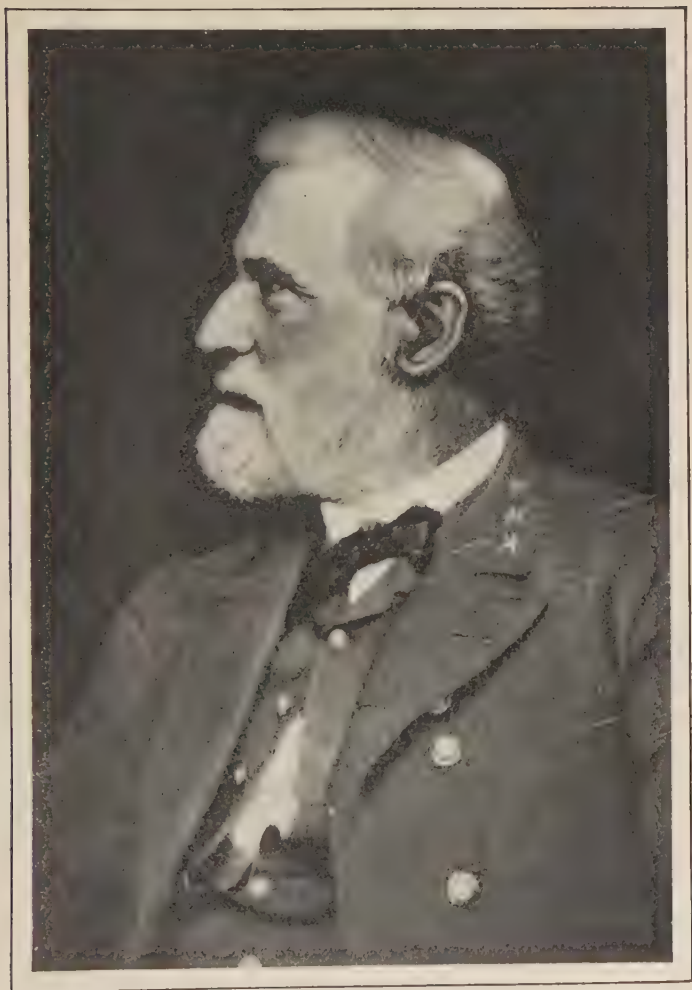
2. Make three lists of the states in 1861. In one list place the slave states that seceded, in another the slave states that did not secede, and in a third the free states.

3. "The Importance of the Attack on Fort Sumter." Give a two-minute floor talk on this subject.

4. Make two lists of causes of the Civil War. In one include only events that happened between 1858 and 1861; in the other you may include events and conditions of long standing.

5. Excellent material on the events discussed above is found in *The Election of Lincoln and the Civil War (1860-1865)*, Vol. VIII of Great Epochs in American History. Do not miss reading some of this material.

¹ Before the blockade was tight, an incident occurred known as the "*Trent* affair." It nearly got us into war with England. This is the story: Two Confederates were being sent to England and France in an attempt to get help from those countries. They slipped through the blockade on a Confederate vessel for Cuba. There they got aboard an English vessel, the *Trent*, bound for England. When the *Trent* was out a short distance, a United States gunboat stopped it and took off the two Confederates. Then the *Trent* was allowed to go on. The English were angry that a United States vessel had stopped an English ship and searched her. It looked as if they might declare war. At first the North was delighted over the capture of the two men. But Lincoln was doubtful whether an American vessel had the right to stop an English vessel and take passengers from its deck. Then other people began to remember that we ourselves had always objected to such actions. At the time of the War of 1812 England had stopped our vessels on the sea and searched them. We had objected. Now we were doing exactly what we had said England had no right to do; and so the two Confederates were released, and the trouble was ended.



GENERAL ROBERT E. LEE

2. WHAT HAPPENED IN THE EAST DURING THE EARLY PHASES OF THE WAR?

The map on page 417 shows that the Appalachian Mountains divide the South into two parts: one part, along the Atlantic coast, is east of the mountains; the other part, the Mississippi Valley, is west of the mountains. The North decided to start two great military movements — one east and one west of the Appalachians. The first battles took place in the East.

"On to Richmond!" If we remember the purpose of the Civil War we shall see that the North had to make the next move. The South wished to leave the Union. If the North did nothing to prevent, the South would succeed in leaving. To prevent secession the North must go into the seceded states and force them to come back. Hence Northern newspapers and leaders began to demand a military movement into the South. It was soon seen that seventy-five thousand soldiers were not enough, and arrangements were made for more.

The Confederate capital at Richmond was only about a hundred miles in a straight line from Washington. The people of the North began to demand that troops be sent down to capture Richmond. **"On to Richmond!"** demanded the newspapers. Little did the North realize the difficulties in the way. There was, in the first place, a Confederate army, which was well led; then there were swamps, many wide rivers, thick woods, and only a few good roads over which armies could march. Moreover, the Northern army was poorly prepared. Nevertheless the cry went up, **"On to Richmond!"** and on to Richmond an army was sent.

Bull Run, July 21, 1861. Not far from Washington, in the direction of Richmond, a Confederate force was posted on a stream called Bull Run. A Northern army under General

McDowell was sent against it. So sure were the Washington politicians of a quick victory that they went out after the army in wagons and on horses to see the great event. At first it looked as if the North would win when the armies met on July 21, 1861. But General Jackson and his men stood firm (he was called Stonewall Jackson after that day because he stood like a solid wall). Then some reserves were rushed in with a shrill yell against the Federal troops. The Northerners fell back. Then they started for Washington as fast as they could go — soldiers, wagons, horses, and spectators, all in a mob.¹ The results of the battle were important: the South thought that they would quickly win the war; the North was greatly cast down.

McClellan's Preparations. But the serious business of training a real Northern army had not yet been started. General George B. McClellan, who was an excellent drillmaster, was given this task.

McClellan was best at preparing the troops for battle. His men liked him. The soldiers were drilled and drilled. A force of artillery was trained, and a force of cavalry begun.² Under McClellan's leadership the Army of the Potomac, as his army was called, got into the pink of condition. The summer of 1861 wore on, however, and the fall and winter of 1861-1862, and the army did not move. McClellan's plan

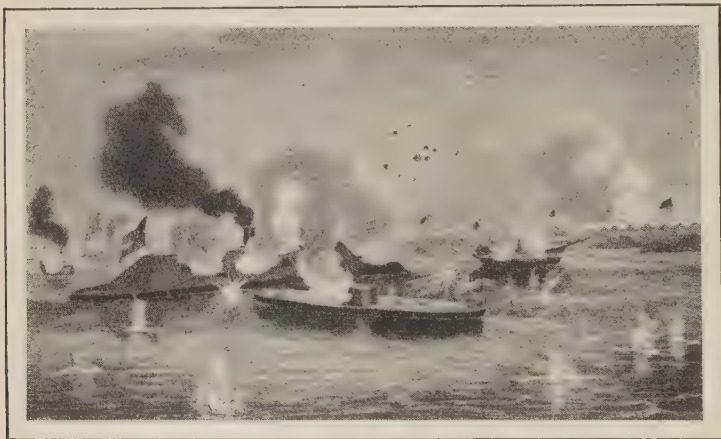
¹ Brave as many of these men were — both Confederates and Federals — they were not well enough trained for so hard a task as marching and fighting. Nor were they disciplined like experienced soldiers: they frequently straggled to one side to get a drink of water or to pick some blackberries. On one day the Northern army marched only six miles. It took another day to get the stragglers together again. The men had not become accustomed to carrying muskets, canteens, and the like. Their canteens banged against their bayonets; their tin cups rattled against the butts of their muskets. The weather was hot and the roads were dusty. Consequently, many of the soldiers threw away parts of their equipment and were sorry afterwards.

² In those days, when there were no airplanes, officers found out about the enemy's movements by sending out cavalymen. These soldiers, mounted on swift horses, would sally out toward the enemy and try to find out just where they were and how many there were; then they would dash back to their own lines.

was to go down the Potomac with his army and march up the peninsula between the York and James rivers, and he wished to have his army in perfect readiness before he started.

The *Merrimac* and the *Monitor*. McClellan could not move if the enemy controlled Chesapeake Bay, and it was just there that one of the most peculiar events of the war occurred.

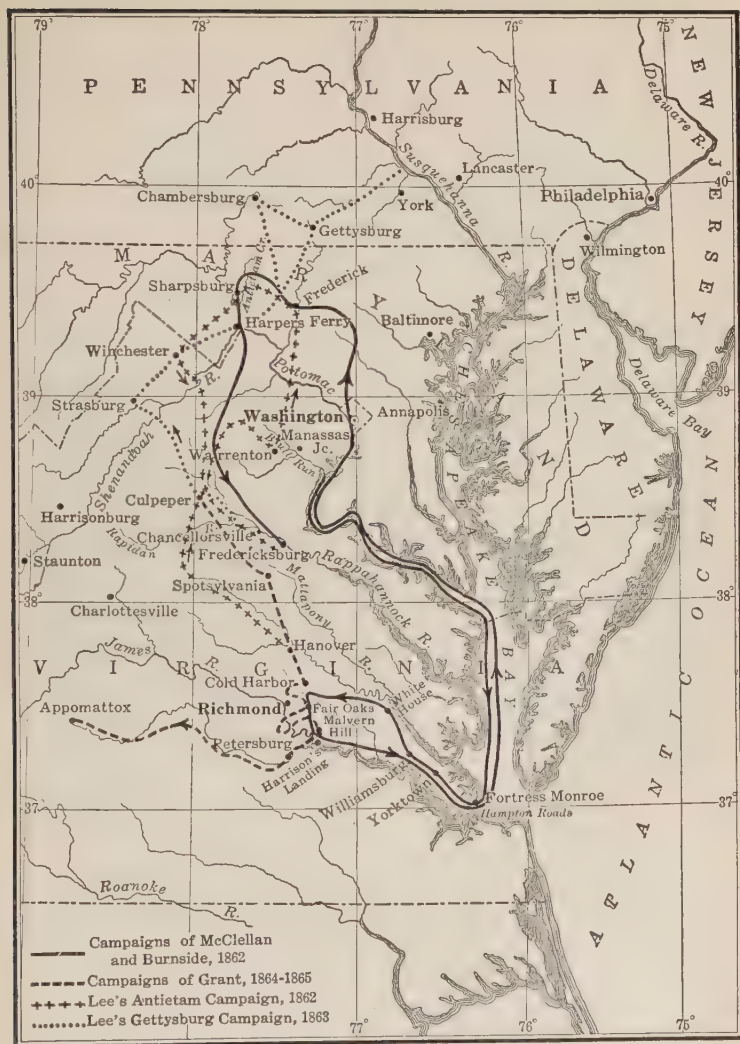
The Confederates had taken an old ship, the *Merrimac*, and had removed the masts and sails; then they had mounted



THE FIRST BATTLE BY IRONCLADS, THE *MONITOR* AND THE *MERRIMAC*

From an old engraving

cannon on her and heavily plated her sides with iron. Early in March the *Merrimac* steamed out of Norfolk, Virginia. She made straight for several Northern wooden ships which lay in Chesapeake Bay. The wooden ships turned their guns on her, but to no purpose, as the cannonballs rattled off the iron plates like peas blown against a wall. The *Merrimac* rammed one wooden ship and sent her to the bottom; another was destroyed by fire. Then she withdrew to wait for the next day. There was dismay in Washington, for McClellan would be helpless if he could not move his men around by water.



THE WAR IN THE EAST

Besides, what could prevent the *Merrimac* from steaming up to Washington and cannonading the city?

But the North was also building an ironclad raft with a round iron-covered box on it; in fact, it was described as "a cheese box on a raft." The box — or "turret," as it was called — was twenty feet across and nine feet high. It could be revolved, so that the guns inside could shoot in any direction. The *Monitor* arrived in Chesapeake Bay the very night after the *Merrimac* had done such damage.

The next day (March 9, 1862) the *Merrimac* came out to finish her task. And then out came the *Monitor*. A duel between the two ironclads, the first the world had ever seen, lasted for nearly four hours. The *Merrimac* went back to port and was never seen in a battle again.¹ The results of this memorable sea fight were important:

It saved the Northern navy from destruction.

It allowed McClellan to send his troops by water around the peninsula between the York and James rivers.

It showed that ironclad ships could be built. After that day the countries of the world gave up building wooden battleships.

The Peninsular Campaign. The way was now opened up for McClellan. His men were carried round to the peninsula by water. They fought their way up nearly to Richmond, one hundred thousand strong. From April to August, 1862, the fighting went on with no result. McClellan was unable to defeat the Confederate General Robert E. Lee and his able assistant, Stonewall Jackson. The Army of the Potomac was brought back to Washington. Lincoln put General Pope in

¹ What finally became of the *Merrimac* and the *Monitor*? Soon after the battle the Confederates were driven out of Norfolk, and they burned the *Merrimac* rather than have the North get her. The *Monitor* was taken, some months later, down the coast toward Charleston, South Carolina. On the way a heavy sea came up which was too much for her. On the night of December 30, 1862, she sank near Cape Hatteras.

McClellan's place; but Pope was badly beaten at the second battle of Bull Run, and McClellan was put at the head of the Army of the Potomac again.

Antietam, September 17, 1862. The war had been going on for more than a year now, and Lee had generally been successful. He therefore decided to invade the North and possibly frighten the Northern government into stopping the war



LINCOLN IN CONSULTATION WITH HIS GENERALS AT ANTIETAM

A Brady photograph

and letting the South secede. He marched across the Potomac into Maryland and met McClellan at Antietam Creek. There was a bloody battle, nearly twelve thousand men being killed and wounded on each side. Lee was weakened by the loss of so many men, for his army was much smaller than McClellan's; hence he was unable to go farther into the North and slowly retreated back into Virginia. McClellan did not lift a finger to prevent this, and Lincoln was so disap-

pointed by this failure to pursue Lee's army that he again took McClellan's position away from him.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Indicate the importance of the "*Trent* affair" to the North, to the South, and to England.

2. Tell the story of the war in the East up to and including the battle of Antietam.

3. Make a list of the reasons that the South had for being contented with the progress of the war in the East up to the end of the battle of Antietam.

4. Show the importance of the victory of the *Monitor* over the *Merrimac*.

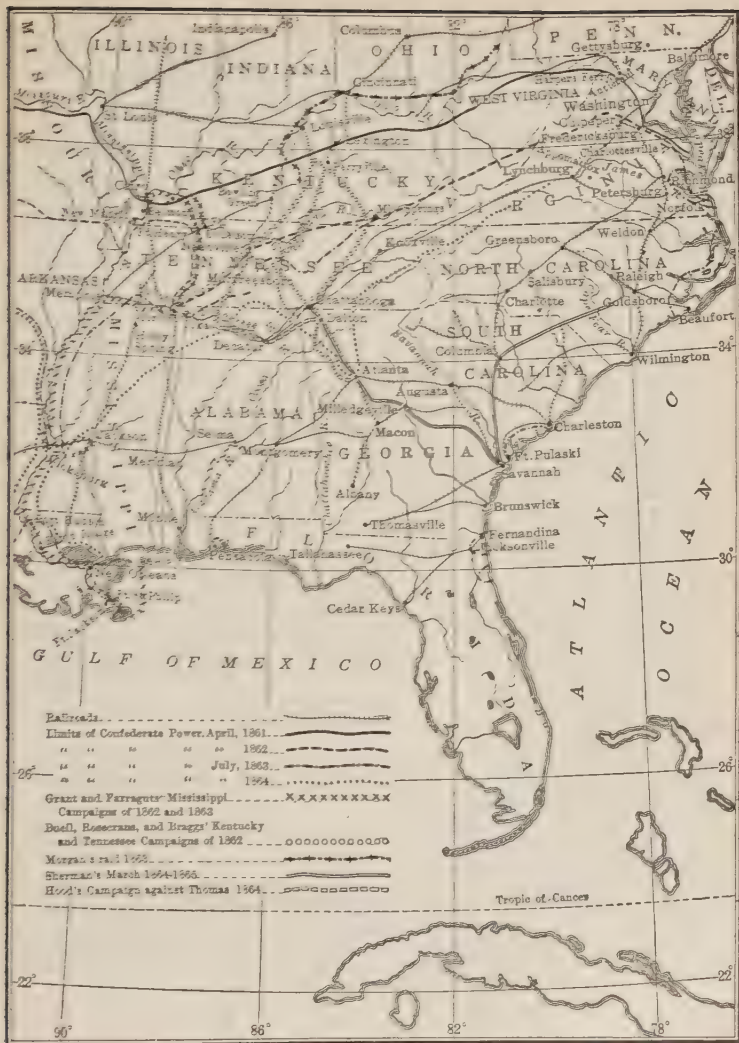
5. Make a list of the significant persons and places mentioned in this section that were connected with the early phases of the war in the East.

6. You will find material on all phases of the war in the books numbered 3, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, and 22 in the Day-by-Day Reference Library on pages 340-342. Become acquainted with as many of these excellent books as you can while you are studying the Civil War.

3. WHAT HAPPENED DURING THE EARLY PART OF THE WAR IN THE WEST?

As far as the war east of the Appalachians was concerned, the North had reasons to be discouraged and the South to be contented. But how did the conflict go in the West?

A glance at the map on page 417 shows how the Mississippi River ran through the Confederate states from north to south. To the west of the river are Texas, Louisiana, and Arkansas. Missouri also had many Confederate sympathizers. If some Union commander could go up the river from the Gulf of Mexico, or down the river from, say, the point where the Ohio and Mississippi rivers meet, might he not split the Confederacy into two parts? Such was the plan that lay in the mind of Ulysses S. Grant.



THE WAR IN THE WEST

Grant and the War in the West. Grant was a graduate of West Point. He had lived both in Missouri and in Illinois, so that he knew the Mississippi Valley; he had served in the Mexican War, so that he understood military affairs. He was a man who said little; but when he started to do anything, he kept at it until it was done. He was appointed an officer in the region around the junction of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers.

There were Confederate forces at Fort Henry on the Tennessee River and at Fort Donelson on the Cumberland River, in Tennessee. Grant thought that he could take both these forts. He had an army of fair size that he had drilled with care, and he had the assistance of Commodore A. H. Foote, who commanded a fleet of river gunboats. These gunboats were new boats which had been built at St. Louis. They were small enough to float on the rivers, but they had heavy-cannon and were covered with armor. The plan that Grant and Foote had was this: Grant with his army would surround Fort Henry on the land side; Foote, with his gunboats, would get in front of it on the river. Then the Confederates would find themselves surrounded on all sides and would surrender. The plan worked as Grant thought it would. The Confederates, seeing what the plan was, then fled across to Fort Donelson. Grant and Foote attacked this fort in the same way. They won another victory and captured fourteen thousand men and many cannon.

While Grant and Foote were doing these things, there was fighting in Missouri. Both the North and the South raised armies there, but the North was victorious and pushed the Confederates down into Arkansas. Meanwhile Grant pushed the Confederates back to southern Tennessee at the town of Shiloh, near Pittsburg Landing. At that place a great battle was fought on April 6-7, 1862. After the battle the Confederates fell back into Mississippi.



GENERAL ULYSSES S. GRANT

Farragut at New Orleans, April, 1862. While these events were occurring in the upper Mississippi Valley, Admiral David G. Farragut was coming up the river from below.¹ Farragut had been given a big fleet and army and been told to go up the Mississippi and capture New Orleans. Below the city were two forts which protected it. Farragut ran by these in the night and forced the city to surrender.

While Farragut was pressing up the river, Grant was pushing down. By the end of the summer of 1862 Grant had driven the Confederates down as far as Vicksburg, and Farragut had driven them up as far as Port Hudson. But here progress stopped. Between Vicksburg and Port Hudson ran two hundred and fifty miles of Mississippi River. Grant could not get farther down, and Farragut could not get farther up.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Tell the story of the war in the West to the end of the summer of 1862.
2. Was the Mississippi River an aid or a hindrance to the Confederacy? Give reasons for your answer.
3. Make a list of the reasons the North had for being contented with the progress of the war in the West up to the end of the summer of 1862.
4. List the significant persons and places mentioned in this section that were connected with the early phases of the war in the West.

4. HOW THE SLAVES BECAME FREE

During 1862 many people in the North began to be discouraged about the war. Fighting had been going on for over a year. Thousands upon thousands of lives had been lost.

¹ Farragut was the son of a Spaniard. He spent his early life in New Orleans and married in Virginia, where he was living when the war broke out. He went with the North, however, instead of with the South as Lee did. Farragut was sixty years of age at the time of the battle of New Orleans, but he was in excellent physical condition. It is said that he could turn a handspring when he was sixty and could fight with a sword as well as any of his young officers.

And what was the result? The North was winning in the West; the South was winning in the East. People began to wonder whether it was worth while to fight so costly a war merely to keep the Southern states from seceding. They began to complain that slavery was the real cause of the war. Why not abolish slavery, then?

Lincoln's Attitude toward Slavery. At first Lincoln thought that the war must have no purpose except to hold the Union together. If the North tried to end slavery, such states as Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri would secede. If they seceded the Union would collapse, and there would be no Union and, of course, no chance to end slavery either. Lincoln himself thought about as follows:

The negro slave is inferior to the white man.

Slavery, however, is wrong.

The slaves ought to be *bought gradually* by the government from their masters and be sent to some such place as Central America.

Only a few people agreed with Lincoln, however. The South wanted to keep the slaves and to secede from the Union. Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri did not wish to secede, *but they wished to keep their slaves*. The abolitionists wished to have the slaves made free at once without paying the owners a single cent. Hence the people kept nagging Lincoln, some urging him to do one thing and some another. Moreover, both England and France were wondering whether they ought not to interfere and stop the war.

What England and France thought of the War. In England the richer people and the people who directed the government were generally opposed to the North. Many important people in both France and England wished to have their countries join hands and stop the Civil War and let the South secede; in fact, the government of England went so far as to allow the Confederates to buy military supplies in England

and to have war vessels built in the English shipyards. One of these ships, the *Alabama*, did a great deal of damage by sinking Northern vessels during the war.¹

On the other hand, the poorer people of England generally favored the North. This was the more strange because the war hurt the poor people of England very much. Of course the war and the blockade almost stopped the shipping of cotton to England and France. The cotton mills had to cut down their work, and the workmen were thrown out of their jobs. Despite their suffering the poorer people of England hoped that the North would win; for they opposed slavery, and they thought the North would put an end to it. However, as the war went on, Lincoln kept saying that he did not plan to abolish slavery but only to hold the Union together. Thus the people of England became confused and hardly knew what to think about the American war.

The Emancipation Proclamation, January 1, 1863. So the war went on to the end of the summer of 1862. The battle of Antietam, in Maryland, came on September 17, 1862. After the battle Lincoln gave notice that he should change his policy about slavery on January 1, 1863. When the day came he issued a proclamation which contained these points:

Most of the Southern states were still fighting against the Union.

All the slaves in these states should be free.

Sometimes people have thought that the Emancipation Proclamation freed all the slaves. It really did not free any. Slaves held in Union states, such as Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri, were not to be freed. In Tennessee

¹ According to the law in England, war vessels could not be made in English shipyards for foreign countries during a war. While the *Alabama* was being built the Northern representative in England made objections. He went to the government officers, told them that the *Alabama* was being built for the South, and that the law forbade such a thing. However, the government was so slow in stopping it that the *Alabama* was completed and put out to sea. After the Civil War was over, England admitted that she had done wrong, and paid the United States \$15,500,000.

and in parts of Virginia and Louisiana the Union armies had control, and no slaves were to be freed there. And, of course, when the South heard that Lincoln had declared their slaves free, it did not let the slaves go. In the first place, most of the slaves did not want to go, and, in the second place, the



PRESIDENT LINCOLN READING THE EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATION TO
HIS CABINET

From a painting by the American artist Carpenter

South still expected to win the war and keep their slaves. But the Proclamation was important for these reasons:

It changed the purpose of the war from merely keeping the Union together to *both keeping the Union together and abolishing slavery*.

Many Northern people who felt that the real cause of the war was slavery were given new courage to continue the war.

It showed England and France that the North would try to end slavery. As they did not believe in slavery, they no longer talked about stopping the war. They saw that if they stopped it, the South would win and would keep its slaves.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Show Lincoln's wisdom in keeping the slavery question out of the war as long as he did.

2. Account for the attitude toward the war taken by the different classes of people in England and France.

3. Find the following words in the text: abolish, abolitionists, proclamation, emancipation. If you are not certain of the meaning of each, look it up.

4. Explain to the class just what the Emancipation Proclamation did.

5. HOW THE END OF THE WAR WAS BROUGHT ABOUT

Grant at Vicksburg, July 4, 1863. During the winter and spring of 1862-1863 there was no change in the positions which the two sides occupied. Armies marched here and there and met defeats or won victories; but during the early days of July, 1863, two events occurred which were really the turning point of the war. The first was the capture of Vicksburg, Mississippi, by Grant.

We remember that Grant had succeeded in getting as far down the Mississippi River as Vicksburg. There he stuck. Month after month he tried to capture the city, but without success. At last he sent an army of thirty-three thousand men down the river below the town. Then he led them over behind Vicksburg, fighting every step of the way. When he reached the middle of the state of Mississippi, he turned back on Vicksburg and surrounded it. The army and the people in the city soon became desperate because the supplies of food ran out, and on July 4, 1863, they surrendered.¹ In

¹ Vicksburg held out bravely to the very end. The Union cannon became so dangerous that the people dug caves in the earth and hid in them. All kinds of animals, even cats, were killed for food. There still exist a few copies of a newspaper printed in the city just before it surrendered. It is printed on wall paper, the supply of news-print paper having given out. There are also many imitations of this last Vicksburg newspaper, printed some years after the war.

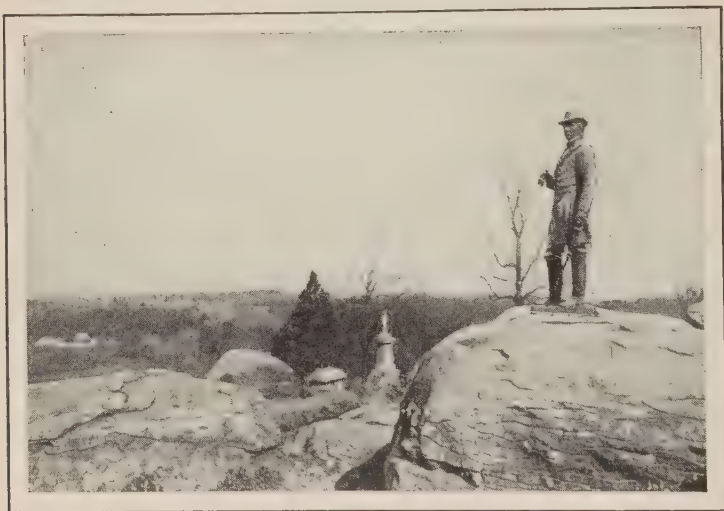
a short time all the Confederate soldiers below Vicksburg were beaten or driven away, so that the North controlled the entire Mississippi Valley from top to bottom. The Confederacy was thus cut in two. It was the work of a short time to send Union armies out into Mississippi and Tennessee and beat down any bands of Confederates that might be found. Then Grant sent the main part of his army to Chattanooga, in southeastern Tennessee, where there was a considerable Southern army.

Gettysburg, July 1-3, 1863. While Grant was having such success in the Mississippi Valley, and the Confederates were having so many failures, conditions were reversed in Virginia. There the Union armies tried one new general after another, and were defeated again and again. On the other hand, Lee won some remarkable victories, although Stonewall Jackson was killed in one of them. Encouraged by his success, Lee decided to march north again. In June, 1863, he crossed the Potomac and moved slowly across Maryland toward Pennsylvania.

A new general, George G. Meade, was put in charge of the Union army, June 28. Meade hastily spread out his forces for the protection of Pennsylvania. On July 1 part of his army met some of the Confederates at the town of Gettysburg, in the southern part of the state. Then ensued two days of bloody fighting, each side bringing on all the men it could get. On July 3 Lee decided on a bold stroke: he would hurl fifteen thousand men at the Union line and try to break it in two. It was a desperate chance, but it might succeed.

Meade thought that Lee might attack his center, and so he had plenty of artillery arranged there. He was spread out on a long ridge, with the land sloping down in front. If Lee should attempt to send men up that slope, Meade intended to be ready. At noon on July 3 all was quiet. At one o'clock two cannon shots were fired by the Confederates, the signal

for a terrific cannonade. At three o'clock fifteen thousand men led by General Pickett started a full mile across the fields to climb the slope and break the Union line. Then Meade let loose his fire upon them. Down fell officers and men in heaps. On went the rest, and again Meade poured in his fire. The task was too great. Human beings could not live under such



LITTLE ROUND TOP, ON THE BATTLEFIELD AT GETTYSBURG

The statue is of General G. K. Warren, who saw the importance of Little Round Top, and seized it for the Union Army. Copyright by Keystone View Co.

a fire, no matter how brave they were. A few — about a hundred men — did get to the top of the slope, but they were too few. All were killed or captured. Those of Pickett's brave men who were able to do so fell back to the Confederate lines. Three fourths of his men were killed or wounded. When Pickett fell back, the tide of the war was changed. Lee got his men together and slowly went back into Virginia. His campaign into Pennsylvania had failed. But could he be defeated in Virginia? It seemed clear that the Confederates

could not invade the North, but would the Union forces be any more successful in forcing a way into Richmond?

Effects of the Blockade. In the meanwhile a force was fighting against the South which was stronger than Meade or Grant or any other leader. This force was the *blockade*. Northern ships were now guarding every Southern port. The South had hoped to send its cotton abroad to sell for gold, and to exchange for other things which it needed. But there stood the Northern battleships to prevent them. Money became scarcer and scarcer. Machinery and railroad tracks and locomotives and cars wore out and could not be replaced or repaired, because the South had been accustomed to get these things from the North or from abroad. The cost of food stuffs went higher and higher; clothing was worn into shreds; medicine for the sick and the wounded could not be obtained; the army needed cannon and muskets and powder and uniforms. All these could be bought if only cotton could be sent to Europe; but the cotton could not be sent, for there was the blockade. Month after month the Northern warships sailed up and down the Southern coast. In summer and in winter, day and night, in storms and under quiet skies, the blockade grew tighter and tighter. The South could not invade the North — the defeat at Gettysburg had proved that; it could not sell its cotton abroad for supplies for use in winning the war; hence it had to rely on a few factories, mainly in Georgia, which could supply a little equipment. It was not enough, but it was all there was.

Sherman's Great March. A Northern army was now to be made ready for a march straight into the heart of Georgia.

We have seen that Grant's army was sent to Chattanooga after the surrender of Vicksburg. Grant himself was called to Virginia to see if he could whip Lee. His army at Chattanooga was turned over to General William T. Sherman.

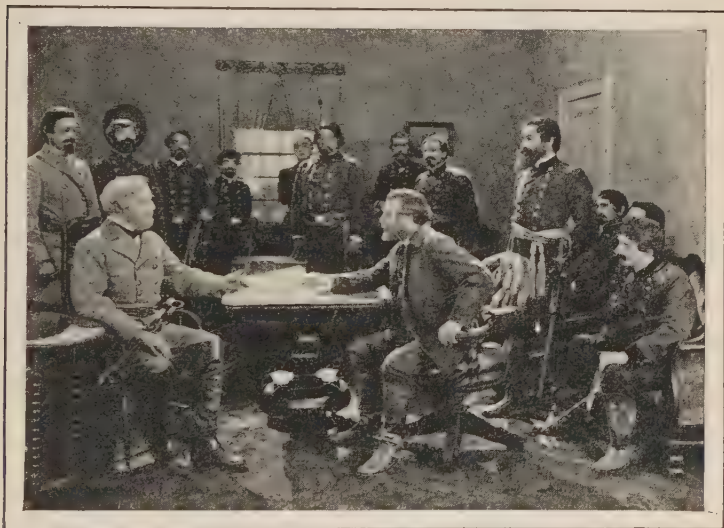
In the spring of 1864 Sherman started down the railroad

line from Chattanooga to Atlanta. He had about one hundred thousand men, and these men required a hundred and thirty carloads of food every day, so that he had to take great care to have the railway line kept open. General Joseph E. Johnston led the Confederates against him, but Johnston had fewer men than Sherman had. In September Sherman got through to Atlanta and captured the city. The factories which made uniforms and other things for the Confederates were burned to the ground, and the cotton which had been stored there was destroyed. Then Sherman marched down toward the coast and captured Savannah. So Sherman had cut the Confederacy in two from Chattanooga to Savannah, just as Grant and Farragut had cut it in two in their campaigns on the Mississippi.

Sherman's successes came at a very fortunate time for the North. Until his capture of Atlanta, things looked black for the Union. Most Democrats and many Republicans were dissatisfied with Lincoln and the way he had carried on the war. In fact, it was feared that the Republicans alone could not reelect him as president; hence a ticket was made up of Lincoln as the candidate for president and Andrew Johnson, a Democrat from Tennessee who favored the North, as the candidate for vice president. The majority of the Democrats opposed Lincoln and nominated General McClellan. They wished to stop the war. Just at this time Sherman's successes convinced the Republicans and many of the Democrats that they had better push the war to a finish, and in November, 1864, Lincoln was again elected president.

In February, 1865, Sherman headed north across the Carolinas. A regrettable incident of this march was the burning of Columbia, the capital of South Carolina, on February 17. In North Carolina, Sherman met the Confederate General Joseph E. Johnston. Johnston's army was fast dwindling away, and he could get so few reinforcements that he was compelled to surrender.

Grant in Virginia; the End of the War. We remember that Grant had been called to Washington to see whether he could defeat Lee. At the very time when Sherman was starting out from Chattanooga, Grant started across Virginia toward Richmond. He had one hundred and twenty-two thousand men; Lee had about half that number. Grant



THE SURRENDER OF LEE TO GRANT

From "Dixie," one of The Chronicles of America Photoplays. Copyright. By permission, Yale University Press

fought Lee at the Wilderness, at Spottsylvania, and at Cold Harbor. Neither could capture the other. The losses in dead and wounded were very great, but Grant could get more men, and Lee could not. The Confederacy had used up nearly all the men it had. Still Grant could not get to Richmond.

Then he tried going up the James River, as McClellan had done early in the war; but Lee was in the way at Petersburg. There the two armies stayed. All through the summer and autumn of 1864 and the winter of 1864-1865 neither army

could make much headway against the other. Then came the break. Lee's small army was getting smaller, and few reinforcements could be obtained. Early in April he decided to leave Richmond and Petersburg and try to join forces with Joseph E. Johnston before Sherman should capture him; but Grant was quickly on Lee's heels, and caught up with him at



THE LINCOLN MEMORIAL IN WASHINGTON

Appomattox on April 9, 1865. There was no use in further resistance. Lee's army was ragged, hungry, and worn out, and so he gave up. The Confederates were sent home to do their spring plowing. The Civil War was over.¹

Death of Lincoln. The joy over the ending of the war, however, had scarcely died down in the North when President Lincoln was assassinated by an actor in a Washington theater. The news struck the cheers of victory from the lips of the people, for they were just coming to appreciate their leader.

¹ Jefferson Davis and some of the other Confederate leaders were imprisoned, but all were later released. Lee became president of Washington College (now called Washington and Lee), in Virginia, and died in 1870. Davis died in 1889.

While Lincoln was alive a great many people condemned his way of conducting the war, but now that he was dead they began to see how patient, wise, and kindly he had been.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Give a floor talk on the topic "The Turning Point of the War."
2. Show how the blockade helped the North and hindered the South.
3. Make a list of the persons mentioned in this section. Identify each with respect to the war.
4. Make a list of places mentioned in this section. Identify each with respect to the war.
5. Give a floor talk on the topic "From Vicksburg to Appomattox."
6. Do not miss reading the accounts of Lincoln, Lee, Stonewall Jackson, and Jefferson Davis in *America First*, by L. B. Evans.

6. WHAT WERE SOME OF THE OUTSTANDING EFFECTS OF THE WAR?

Cost in Lives and Suffering and Money. It is impossible to tell exactly how many were killed or died of disease during the war. It is estimated, however, that more than six hundred thousand men died in the North and South. A great many were disabled or crippled by disease or accidents. For years after the war it was a common sight in towns and cities all over the United States to see veterans who had lost an arm or a leg or who were feeble or sick from disease due to service in the field.

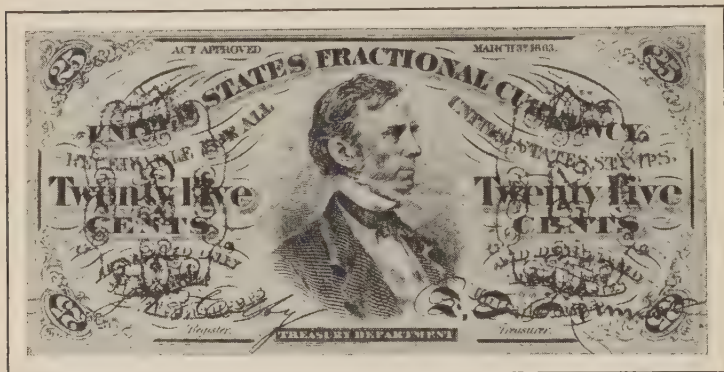
It is sometimes estimated that the war cost the North and South together \$4,750,000,000. This does not include what the states and counties spent nor the cost of pensions ever since. The country is still paying hundreds of millions of dollars every year on account of the Civil War. It would have been cheaper and better for everybody if the nation had agreed to pay the South for the slaves and had then set them free.

The losses of men and money were not the only losses :

There was much physical suffering from pain and wounds.

The people at home who did not go to the battlefields — the women and children, the older people, and others — suffered torments of anxiety about their relatives at the front.

The country lost the work of all its soldiers in agriculture and manufacturing. Education was hindered ; homes



A PHOTOGRAPH OF A NORTHERN "SHINPLASTER," WHICH IS STILL IN EXISTENCE

were broken up. All that these men might have grown or made or written or thought of was lost because of the war.

The Effects of the War on Business, North and South. In the North the effect of the war on business was bad at first. Money became scarce. The government even issued paper twenty-five-cent pieces and other pieces of paper money known as shinplasters. Postage stamps were also used for money. Prices went up. Wages did not increase as fast as prices did ; hence workingmen were in great distress. This distress, however, was short-lived ; for after the first year and a half of the war, business became better. Factories were running at full speed making uniforms, ammunition, rifles, and food for the soldiers. Too often the manufacturers cheated the government by selling poor goods at high prices.

At the outset the effect on farming was as bad as it was on manufacturing; for the armies, of course, called away many men from the farms. But then more and more labor-saving machinery was introduced. Bigger and bigger crops were grown. By the end of the war the farmers in the North were producing plenty of food.

The effects of the war on the South were more severe.

In order to fight the North, the South had to call upon practically all its men, because it had a much smaller population than the North. So the fields had to be tilled and the factories run by the old men, women, and slaves. Hence business did not prosper as it did in the North.

The war was fought, for the most part, in the South. The few factories were one by one burned down; the railroads were torn up or worn out; many houses and barns were destroyed. When the war was finally ended, the Southern people were in a pitiable condition.

Before the war the South had depended on the slaves to do most of the manual labor. Now the slaves were freed. They did not wish to work, and it was hard to get workmen of any kind. Hence for years after the war it was almost impossible to have work done properly.

How the North profited by Immigration. We remember that most of the immigrants who came to America before the Civil War settled in the North. The great advantage of this fact to the North is seen in the number of officers who were born in Europe themselves or whose ancestors were born there. Some were Germans, like Carl Schurz and Franz Sigel; some were of Scotch or of Scotch-Irish descent, like the members of the McCook family,¹ or were sons of Irishmen, like Philip H. Sheridan. Still others had Welsh or French or Spanish ancestors, like Admiral Farragut's father, who was born on the island of Minorca, in the Mediterranean Sea. Still more

¹ There were fourteen members in this family, — nearly all officers.

of the most prominent Northerners were members of families that had long lived in America, like President Lincoln himself.

Effect of the War on All Kinds of People. While the huge armies were in the field fighting the war, a great many people at home were helping in other ways. Men who were too old or not well enough to go into the army helped to supply food and medicine for the sick and injured. Women made



STYLES OF DRESS IN 1862

From a picture in *Godey's Lady's Book* for April, 1862

materials for the hospital and acted as nurses for the sick and wounded. Lincoln said "God bless the women of America." In South Carolina a monument was erected to commemorate the deeds of the women of that state. There were representatives abroad, like Charles Francis Adams in England, who did their utmost to win the war for the side which they felt was right.

Permanent Gains Due to the War. In spite of all the suffering, the war brought some gains which are worthy of mention :

The people came to know about such splendid men as Lincoln, Grant, Sherman, and many others on the Northern side, and such men as Lee, Jefferson Davis, Stonewall Jackson, and others on the Southern side.

Slavery was abolished. Everybody, both in the North and in the South, is now glad that this was done.

The Union was held together, instead of being divided into two countries which would have been quarreling all the time. Everybody is now glad that the North and the South did not separate.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. "What it Cost to Save the Union." Make a sentence outline of this topic.
2. Explain why prices always go up during a war.
3. Show why business did not prosper in the South as it did in the North during the Civil War.
4. "Permanent Gains to the Country Due to the Civil War." Make a sentence outline of this topic.

BEFORE LEAVING DIVISION SIX

I. Debate one or more of the following subjects:

1. *Resolved*, That the United States had a better right than England to the Oregon country.
2. *Resolved*, That Cyrus McCormick did more for the people of the United States and the world than Eli Whitney did.
3. *Resolved*, That the Kansas-Nebraska Act was fair to both the North and the South.
4. *Resolved*, That the South was more favored than the North in the Compromise of 1850.
5. *Resolved*, That the steamboat has aided more in the settlement of the United States than the railroad.
6. *Resolved*, That the blockade did more to defeat the South than the military attacks by the Union forces.

II. Prepare the following for your notebook :

1. A time line of presidential administrations and important events for the period 1829-1865. The events to show may be determined by means of a class discussion.
2. A statement of approximately two hundred words in length about each of the following: Abraham Lincoln, Andrew Jackson, Stephen A. Douglas, Cyrus McCormick, Henry Clay, Daniel Webster, John C. Calhoun, Jefferson Davis, Robert E. Lee, Ulysses S. Grant.
3. A brief statement of why the following dates are important: 1832, 1845, 1846, 1848, 1850, 1854, 1858, 1861, 1863.
4. A *Hall of Fame* for Division Six. Select the persons for the *Hall* in the same way that they have been selected for other divisions.
5. A map, as follows :
 - a. Title: Growth in Territory of Continental United States.
 - b. Use an outline map of the United States.
 - c. Show the original territory; also the Louisiana Purchase, the Florida Purchase, Texas, Oregon, the Mexican cession, and the Gadsden Purchase. Show also the boundary of each state and territory to 1860.
 - d. Locate and name the rivers, mountains, lakes, and cities that you have met in Division Six up to 1860.
 - e. Trace the canals, trails, and roads other than railroads mentioned by name in this division.

III. Be able to do the following things :

1. Tell a straightforward story of the Civil War.
2. Tell why each of the following names should be remembered: Harriet Beecher Stowe, Andrew Jackson, Abraham Lincoln, Ulysses S. Grant, Robert E. Lee, Stephen A. Douglas, Daniel Webster, General McClellan, Henry Clay, General Sherman, Martin Van Buren, Admiral Farragut, James K. Polk, John Brown, William Henry Harrison, William Lloyd Garrison, John Tyler, Jefferson Davis, John C. Calhoun, Samuel F. B. Morse, Elias Howe, Horace Mann, Richard M. Hoe, Charles Goodyear, Mary Lyon, Emma Willard, Sam Houston, Moses Austin.

3. Explain the importance of the following:
 - a.* 1830, the beginning of the era of railroad-building in the United States.
 - b.* 1831, McCormick's reaper.
 - c.* 1844, Morse's telegraph.
 - d.* 1845, annexation of Texas.
 - e.* 1846, Howe's sewing-machine.
 - f.* 1848, the Mexican cession; discovery of gold in California.
 - g.* 1850, the Missouri Compromise.
 - h.* 1854, the Kansas-Nebraska Act.
 - i.* 1860, election of Lincoln and secession of South Carolina.
 - j.* 1863, Emancipation Proclamation; battle of Gettysburg.
 - k.* 1865, Lee's surrender.
4. Without the aid of book or map, show on an outline map of the United States the states in 1830, the various acquisitions of territory up to 1860, the Oregon Trail, the Santa Fe Trail, the Cumberland Road, the Erie Canal, and the leading cities, rivers, and mountains.

IV. Conduct a "round-table" on books read by members of the class while studying Units V-VII of Division Six, Expansion and Conflict. For this project use the books numbered 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 10, 11, 17, 18, 21, 22, and 24 in the Story-Book Library on pages 343 and 344.

DIVISION SEVEN

REBUILDING THE UNION, 1865-1900

FOREWORD

A nation which has just been through a long, hard war is like a man who has been through a long, hard illness. The nation has to recover its strength first. Its business affairs are in disorder and sadly need attention. It has lost some of its good spirits and must recover them. Hence the first thing to be looked for in Division Seven is the recovery from the war.

As soon as the country began to recover from the damage due to the war, a great many changes began to take place. These demand our close attention.

Everybody knows how *slowly* the world changed in early times. Probably a man who lived in the colonies in 1650 would have been perfectly at home if he had come to life in 1750, because the changes were few. Between 1750 and 1800 the changes were greater, for the Revolution changed our form of government. Between 1800 and the close of the Civil War, change was in the air because of the great expansion of the country.

But after 1865, and especially from 1865 to 1900! It is probably not an exaggeration to say that more changes occurred in the everyday life of every man, woman, and child during those thirty-five years than had occurred in earlier times in a century, perhaps in several centuries. This is not the place to tell exactly what those changes were, for that would spoil the point of the story as it unfolds. But if Lincoln (who died in 1865) could have come to life in 1900, every one of the changes mentioned in Division Seven would have astonished him. How many new things could we have explained in 1900 to any soldier or officer who had died in the Civil War either on the Northern side or on the Southern?



INDUSTRIAL AMERICA AFTER THE CIVIL WAR

This is a photograph of an industrial scene in Pittsburgh, and typifies the development of manufacturing after the Civil War. For what reasons is this picture more accurate than any of the earlier frontispieces? (They are to be found at the beginning of the book, and opposite pages 2, 42, 104, 152, 238, and 336)

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TWO TWENTY-FOUR BOOK LIBRARIES

I. A DAY-BY-DAY REFERENCE LIBRARY

Are you familiar with any of the twenty-four books listed below? How many of them can you get from your school library or your public library? Secure as many of them as you can for your reference-book shelf while you are studying Division Seven.

1. *The Progress of a United People*, edited by C. L. Barstow. The Century Co.

Contains material on a number of subjects such as "The Ku Klux Klan," "Civil Service Reform," "The Bosses and the People," "Custer's Last Battle," "The Battle of Manila Bay," and others of equal importance.

2. *Indian Fights and Fighters*, by C. T. Brady. Doubleday, Page & Company.

Tells of the rough life on the frontier between 1866 and 1890. An excellent account of how the West was won from the Indians.

3. *Life on the Mississippi*, by S. L. Clemens (Mark Twain). Harper & Brothers.

A vivid first-hand description of steamboating on the Mississippi River in the eighteen-seventies.

4. *The Adventures of Buffalo Bill*, by W. F. Cody (Buffalo Bill). Harper & Brothers.

A much-read book. Contains an eyewitness account of the Wild West just after the Civil War.

5. *Fifty Years on the Old Frontier*, by James H. Cook. Yale University Press.

Cook's experiences in Texas, Wyoming, and New Mexico during the seventies and eighties chiefly. Many good pictures.

6. *Tenting on the Plains*, by Elizabeth B. Custer. Harper & Brothers.

Life in Kansas and Texas about 1870.

7. *Boots and Saddles*, by Elizabeth B. Custer. Harper & Brothers.

Life in Dakota as viewed by the wife of General Custer.

8. *Following the Guidon*, by Elizabeth B. Custer. Harper & Brothers.
Kansas and the Indian Territory between 1865 and 1876.

9. *When the Ku Klux Klan Rode*, by Eyre Damer. The Neale Publishing Company.

A treatment of events connected with reconstruction days, by one who was in the midst of them. Contains material difficult to find elsewhere.

10. *The Building of a Nation*, by Henry Gannett. The Henry T. Thomas Company.

A picture of the United States in 1890 as revealed by the census for that year. Many illustrations, maps, graphs, and diagrams.

11. *The Reconstruction Period (1865-1877)*, edited by Francis W. Halsey, Volume IX of Great Epochs in American History. Funk & Wagnalls Company.

Accounts of a number of significant events in our history between 1865 and 1877. The assassination and funeral of Lincoln, the capture and death of Booth, the Atlantic cable, the purchase of Alaska, the first railroad across the continent, the panic of 1873, and other topics of equal importance are discussed.

12. *Our Own Recent Times (1877-1911)*, edited by Francis W. Halsey, Volume X of Great Epochs in American History. Funk & Wagnalls Company.

Most of this volume deals with events that occurred before 1900. Excellent material on a number of important topics. Contains an index to the ten volumes in the set.

13. *The Prairie Schooner*, by W. F. Hooker. Saul Brothers.

An eyewitness account of times in the West round Laramie, Wyoming, in the seventies.

14. *The Bullwhacker*, by W. F. Hooker. World Book Company.

A first-hand account of a kind of Western life that was common in the eighteen-seventies. The experiences of an ox-team driver on the Old Cheyenne, Medicine Bow, and Sidney trails.

15. *The Story of the Cowboy*, by Emerson Hough. D. Appleton and Company.

The title suggests the contents.

16. *The Boys of '98*, by James O. Kaler. The Page Company.

The story of the Spanish-American War from the beginning to the end. Full of good illustrations. Some valuable material in the appendixes.

17. *The War with Spain*, by Henry Cabot Lodge. Harper & Brothers.

An interesting story of our hundred-day war with Spain in 1898. You may want to read the entire book.

18. *From Lincoln to Coolidge*, by A. E. Logie. Lyons and Carnahan.

A collection of seventy-seven interesting historical accounts written by persons of note who lived at the time of the events described.

19. *The Book of Cowboys*, by Francis Rolt-Wheeler. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

Aims to tell the true story of the cowboys and cowboy days. Contains thirty-three good pictures.

20. *Ranch Life and the Hunting Trail*, by Theodore Roosevelt. The Century Co.

Roosevelt's word picture of a kind of life that was very common in the West during the twenty years prior to 1900. He himself lived for a time on a Western ranch.

21. *Buffalo Bill and the Overland Trail*, by Edwin L. Sabin. J. B. Lippincott Company.

An account of life on the Western plains about 1870.

22. *Breaking Sod on the Prairies*, by Clarence W. Tabor. World Book Company.

The author's story of the life that he and others lived in the Dakotas during the late seventies and after. Some good material not available elsewhere.

23. *In the Northern Woods of Maine*, by E. E. Thomas. World Book Company.

A word picture of life in the Maine woods about 1875.

24. *Buffalo Days*, by H. W. Wheeler. The Bobbs-Merrill Company.

A first-hand account of forty years of life in the West after the Civil War.

II. A STORY-BOOK LIBRARY

You will enjoy reading any of the books listed below. Probably you have already read some of them. Tell the class about them if you have. Ask the librarian at the public library to place them on a special shelf for the use of your class while Division Seven is being studied.

1. *The Wells Brothers*, by Andy Adams. Houghton Mifflin Company.

A word picture of life in the cattle country in the middle eighties.

2. *The Great Sioux Trail*, by Joseph A. Altsheeler. D. Appleton and Company.

The opening up of the West after the Civil War.

3. *The Last of the Chiefs*, by Joseph A. Altsheler. D. Appleton and Company.

The Sioux campaign and the deeds of General Custer in Montana.

4. *The Master of the Strong Heart*, by E. S. Brooks. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

Custer's fights with the Indians. Some excellent illustrations.

5. *The Last Frontier*, by Courtney R. Cooper. Little, Brown & Company.

A tale of the West just after the Civil War. The scene of the story is in the region about Denver, Colorado.

6. *The Voyage of the Rattletrap*, by Hayden Carruth. Harper & Brothers.

The story of a journey of a prairie schooner through the Dakotas and Nebraska. An interesting and accurate account of life in the early days.

7. *Boy Life on the Prairie*, by Hamlin Garland. The Macmillan Company.

An account of the life that Garland himself lived in northern Iowa about 1870.

8. *A Son of the Middle Border*, by Hamlin Garland. The Macmillan Company.

Everyday life in the West during the late eighteen-sixties. Garland's father was the "son" and Iowa the "middle border."

9. *Jack, the Young Cowboy*, by C. B. Grinnell. Frederick A. Stokes Company.

Cowboy life and the cowboy country during the eighties.

10. *Cricket*, by Forrestine C. Hooker. Doubleday, Page & Company.

A tale of the West in the neighborhood of Fort Sill in the seventies.

11. *North of '36*, by Emerson Hough. D. Appleton and Company.

An account of a great cattle drive from Texas north to Kansas during the late sixties.

12. *The Ranch on the Oxhide*, by H. E. Inman. The Macmillan Company.

A tale of pioneer days in Kansas.

13. *Black Friday*, by F. S. Isham. The Bobbs-Merrill Company.

The panic of 1873, which was caused by the failure of Jay Cooke & Company, is the subject of this story.

14. *The Silver Cache of the Pawnee*, by D. Lange. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

A story of the old Santa Fe Trail.

15. *The Spirit of the Mountains*, by Emma B. Miles. James Pott & Company.

A portrayal of life in the highland regions of Kentucky, Tennessee, and the Carolinas about 1900.

16. *Heroes of Our War with Spain*, by Clinton Ross. Frederick A. Stokes Company.

17. *Opening the Iron Trail*, by Edwin L. Sabin. Thomas Y. Crowell Company.

Experiences of two boys who helped to build the Union and Central Pacific railroads.

18. *On the Plains with Custer*, by Edwin L. Sabin. J. B. Lippincott Company.

The struggle to win pioneer Kansas, Nebraska, and the Dakotas from the Indians.

19. *General Crook and the Fighting Apaches*, by Edwin L. Sabin. J. B. Lippincott Company.

The conquest of the Southwest.

20. *With the Indians in the Rockies*, by James W. Schultz. Houghton Mifflin Company.

Life in the Rocky Mountain region during the eighteen-seventies.

21. *Little Smoke*, by W. C. Stoddard. D. Appleton and Company.

The Indians of the West and Custer's battles with them.

22. *Western Stories Retold from St. Nicholas*. The Century Co.

Good stories of Western life during the seventies and eighties.

23. *Western Frontier Stories Retold from St. Nicholas*. The Century Co.

Stories similar to those found in 22 above. You will enjoy them.

24. *Gold-Seeking on the Dalton Trail*, by A. R. Thompson. Little, Brown & Company.

This story centers around the great gold rush to the Klondike in the late nineties.

DIVISION SEVEN

REBUILDING THE UNION, 1865-1900

UNIT I. RECOVERING FROM THE CIVIL WAR

At the close of the Civil War all parts of the country had to stop preparations for fighting and begin preparations for peace. Hundreds of thousands of men had to drop their rifles and go back once more to their work on the farms or in the workshops, offices, and stores. While this great task had to be performed everywhere, it was greatest in the South, of course, where most of the warfare had taken place.

1. HOW TO GET A LIVING IN THE SOUTH

In the South the most important question was how to get a living. Food was scarce nearly everywhere. Clothing was hard to get, and prices were high. Houses had fallen to pieces. The schools were closed. When one of the state universities tried to open in 1865, only a single student came to attend. There were no luxuries and few comforts. People had to be satisfied with a bare living. How badly off the people were may be judged from the words of a man who saw the South just after the war ended :

Window-glass has given way to thin boards, in railway coaches and in the cities. Furniture is marred and broken, and none has been replaced for four years. . . . A complete set of crockery is never seen, and in very few families is there enough to set a table. . . . A set of forks with whole tines is a curiosity. Clocks and watches have nearly all stopped. . . . Hair brushes and tooth brushes have all worn out ; combs are broken. . . . Pins, needles, and thread . . . are very

scarce. . . . Even candles, in some cases, have been replaced by a cup of grease in which a piece of cloth is plunged for a wick.¹

Conditions on the Plantations. It would be natural to ask the question Why did not the Southern people cultivate their big plantations and get a living in that way? There were two reasons why this could not be done (although it seemed easy).



"THE LOST CAUSE"

An artist's conception of the return of a Confederate soldier to his home after the close of the war

Most of the Southern people were well-nigh penniless after the war and did not have the money to buy the tools and seeds which were needed.

There were too few men to do the work. Many of the white men had been killed or wounded in the war, and of course the slaves were now free. Most of the negroes did not wish to settle down to hard work immediately, so they roamed

¹ Quoted in Fleming's *Sequel of Appomattox*, pp. 5-6.

about in idleness. Many of them collected in the towns and cities, where there was more excitement than on the farms.

Hence it became necessary to divide the large farms into small ones. When the owners of large plantations found that they could not till the land themselves, they sold or leased parts of it to men who had no land at all. Sometimes the "share" system was used; that is, a man who had land and money would let somebody cultivate it who had no land. The owner of the land would supply the tools and seeds; the man who had no land would supply the labor. Then, when the crop was harvested, the landowner would take part of it and the laborer the rest. By 1890 the average Southern farm was less than half as large as it was before the war, and instead of a few powerful owners of big plantations, there were many owners or tenants of small farms. Most of these were whites, but in many cases negroes began to be small farmers.

The South gets a Start. Of course it took time to get the South started. Gradually, however, conditions improved. By 1890 the South was growing more cotton than it had grown before the war and almost as much sugar and rice as it had before 1860. Mills were being built for making cotton cloth; the swift-flowing rivers supplied plenty of water power to turn the wheels. Men and women who could not run farms or did not wish to do so supplied the labor. Even very small children were put to work in the mills. Small manufacturing towns began to grow. In fact, exactly the same thing began to happen that occurred in New England during the War of 1812 and afterwards.

In some parts of the South the people began mining coal and iron. In Florida they began growing fruit, and in Louisiana and Texas they started rice fields. There was plenty of timber for building ships and making boards. The forests produced tar, turpentine, and resin. The South had not recovered from the war by 1890, but it had made a brave start.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of four or five specific things relating to the Civil War that caused the South to be in the condition that it was in when the war was over.

2. Explain how the big plantations came to be divided into many small farms.

3. Compare what happened in the South between 1865 and 1890 with what happened in New England between 1812 and 1830.

4. In 1864 there were 299,372 bales of cotton grown in the South. There were 2,520,499 bales in 1869; 3,528,276 in 1874; 5,466,387 in 1879; 5,491,288 in 1884; 7,472,511 in 1889; and 10,025,534 in 1894. Express these facts by means of a bar diagram.

5. Read "Woe to the Vanquished!" in Mrs. Roger A. Pryor's *Reminiscences of Peace and War*, chap. xxv.

6. "The South after the War" (1865-1866) is discussed in *The Reconstruction Period*, pp. 59 ff., Vol. IX of Great Epochs in American History. This is well worth reading.

2. WHAT TO DO ABOUT THE SLAVES

The Freedman. Besides facing the question of earning a bare living, the South had to decide what to do about the negroes. The North had to face this question, too. People generally agreed that the slaves must be freed. This was brought about by the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, December 18, 1865.¹

The people of the North felt that it was not fair to make the negro free and then leave him alone. Hence the government started the Freedmen's Bureau. This was an organization that showed negroes where to find abandoned farms which they might cultivate. It sent food and clothing to them.

¹ The Thirteenth Amendment freed *all* the slaves in *all* the states, whether they had fought for the South or not. The Emancipation Proclamation declared that all slaves *in parts of the South that were actually at war on January 1, 1863*, were free. In reality the Proclamation did not free any slaves, but it showed that the North would free them *if it won the war*.

It made arrangements with whites to hire negro workmen, and it helped to settle terms of work. In a word, the Freedmen's Bureau acted as a *guardian* over the former slaves.

Giving the Negro the Right to Vote. Even with the help of the Bureau the freedmen were in a hard position. Under slavery they had had no responsibility for doing anything except what they were ordered to do, but after the war they were suddenly forced to look out for themselves. Of course they made mistakes. Some of them refused to work and got their living by stealing. A false rumor went round that the government was going to give every negro forty acres of land and a mule. Many negroes waited about until these gifts should be made. The Southern whites were greatly annoyed by so many thefts and so much loafing when workmen were needed. For these reasons some states passed laws compelling the negroes to work under a plan like the indentured-servant system of colonial times. When the people in the North heard of these laws, they thought the South was trying to establish slavery again. A movement was started in the North to give the negro the power to vote, so that he could prevent the passage of such laws.

The right to vote was given the negro in 1870 by the Fifteenth Amendment. Here, again, too much responsibility was placed on the lately freed slaves. The negro did not know how to use his powers as a citizen. Often a corrupt Northern politician went into the South to steer the negro voters into doing things that he wished done.¹

The Northern politicians and the negro voters made plans to rebuild the railroads, improve the schools, and start industry once more. Unfortunately, however, many of the

¹ These Northern politicians were usually called carpetbaggers. The name originated in the idea that the Northern politicians brought nothing into the South except what they could carry in a carpetbag. A carpetbag was a cheap grade of valise, like a suitcase of today. Southern whites who helped the carpetbaggers were known as "scalawags."

politicians did not know how to accomplish these great things economically. The negroes, of course, knew even less about such difficult subjects. Worse than that, many of the politicians and negroes were dishonest. They put themselves into offices and voted themselves big salaries. Once a member of the House of Representatives in South Carolina sold his vote for \$15,000. Judges could be bribed to make decisions in court. In this same state, where conditions were worst, the members of the legislature (four fifths of them were negroes) voted themselves a restaurant at state expense. There the members ate and drank at their leisure; and when they left to go home they stuffed their pockets with free cigars, and even had food, clothing, and furniture sent to their homes at the state's expense. As a result the debts of the Southern states and their taxes mounted higher and higher.

Taking the Negro's Vote Away. Not all these evils were due to dishonest men; some were due to ignorance. Some of the Northerners who went into the South were honest men who really wished to do the South a good turn, but who were so ignorant that they had no idea how little they knew about life in the South. But whether they were dishonest or ignorant, the evils resulted just the same. Southern white men became angry and then desperate. First, many of them became Democrats, because the Northern politicians steered the new negro voters into the Republican party. Then the Southern whites began to prevent the negroes from voting by standing near the voting places and threatening them with injuries. Finally the whites formed a secret society called the Ku-Klux Klan and went about at night dressed in long white robes and told the negroes they must stop voting or get hurt. The Northern politicians were forced to go back to their homes. It took years to bring all this about, but by 1877 the process was complete. Never since that time have the Southern negroes had any considerable political power.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Turn to the Constitution, Appendix B. Find and read the Thirteenth Amendment. Read also *The Story of Our Constitution*, by E. M. Tappan, chap. xi.

2. Describe the condition of a freed slave in 1865.

3. Show why the Freedmen's Bureau could not solve all the difficulties caused by the Thirteenth Amendment.

4. Read the Fifteenth Amendment. Show how it worked in some places in the South.

5. Explain why the South is still Democratic.

6. Get acquainted with *When the Ku Klux Klan Rode*, by Eyre Damer.

7. Be sure to read "The Ku Klux Klan," by D. L. Wilson, in *Progress of a United People*, edited by C. L. Barstow, pp. 16-25.

3. HOW TO REUNITE THE NORTH AND SOUTH

We remember that the South was in favor of the Civil War in order to get out of the Union. The result of the war was the defeat of the Southern states. They were *not out of the Union*, but *were they in it*? The United States courts did not hold sessions in the South. Congressmen did not go from the Southern states up to Washington. The United States mails did not go into the South. Should all these things be started again? Should everybody make believe that no war had ever existed? Or should the South be punished in some way?

The Lincoln-Johnson Plan. President Lincoln had thought about all these questions before he died. President Andrew Johnson, who followed Lincoln, took up the questions at once. His plan was as follows:

Require all Confederates to agree to support the United States from that time on.

Require them to agree that slavery must stop.

Pardon them for having taken part in the war, let them start state governments again, build up the South, and forget the war.

But not everybody agreed with Johnson :

Many members of Congress were dissatisfied because the President was starting the reconstruction of the South, instead of letting Congress do it.

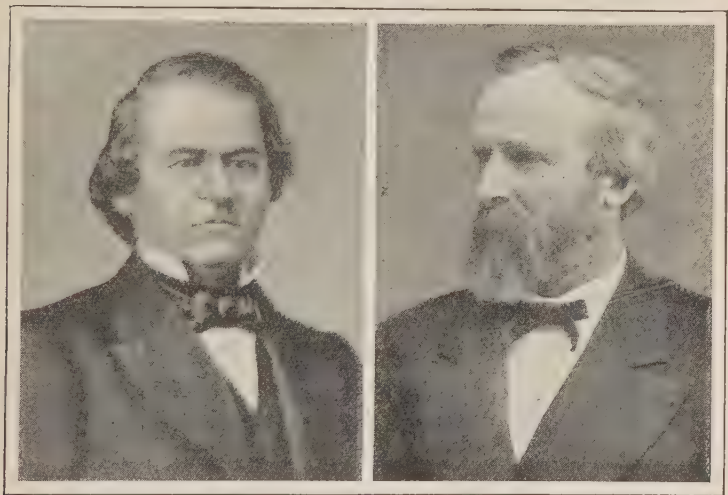
Some people did not like the idea of letting the Southerners back into the Union without punishing them in some way.

People noticed that Johnson wished to let the Southern states decide whether the negroes should vote or not. Many people in the North did not like this idea. They thought that the whites would pass laws putting the negroes back into slavery again unless the negroes had the right to vote.

The fact that not everybody favored the Lincoln-Johnson plan caused some hard feeling between Johnson and Congress. Johnson was not a likable man. Some of the leaders in Congress were not likable men either. As soon as Johnson became president, a bitter quarrel arose between him and Congress. The quarrel was to see whether the President should decide how the South should come back into the Union or whether Congress should do so. Congress won; in fact, it nearly succeeded in driving Johnson out of the president's chair.

The Plan of Congress. In 1867 Congress passed an important law that set down exactly the things which the South must do to get back. This law, called the Military Reconstruction Act, divided the Southern states into five districts. A Northern general with a body of soldiers was to be stationed in each district. The general could appoint officers in the states, he could have the courts try cases, or he could do away with the courts as he chose. He was to force the Southern states to agree to let the negroes vote. The states must also agree to the Fourteenth Amendment to the Consti-

tution, which put many restrictions on the South. All these things greatly angered the Southern people, but they were not strong enough to fight the generals and the Northern soldiers. And so they had to give in. It was not until 1871, however, that all the Southern states accepted negro suffrage, agreed to the Fourteenth Amendment, and got back into the Union.

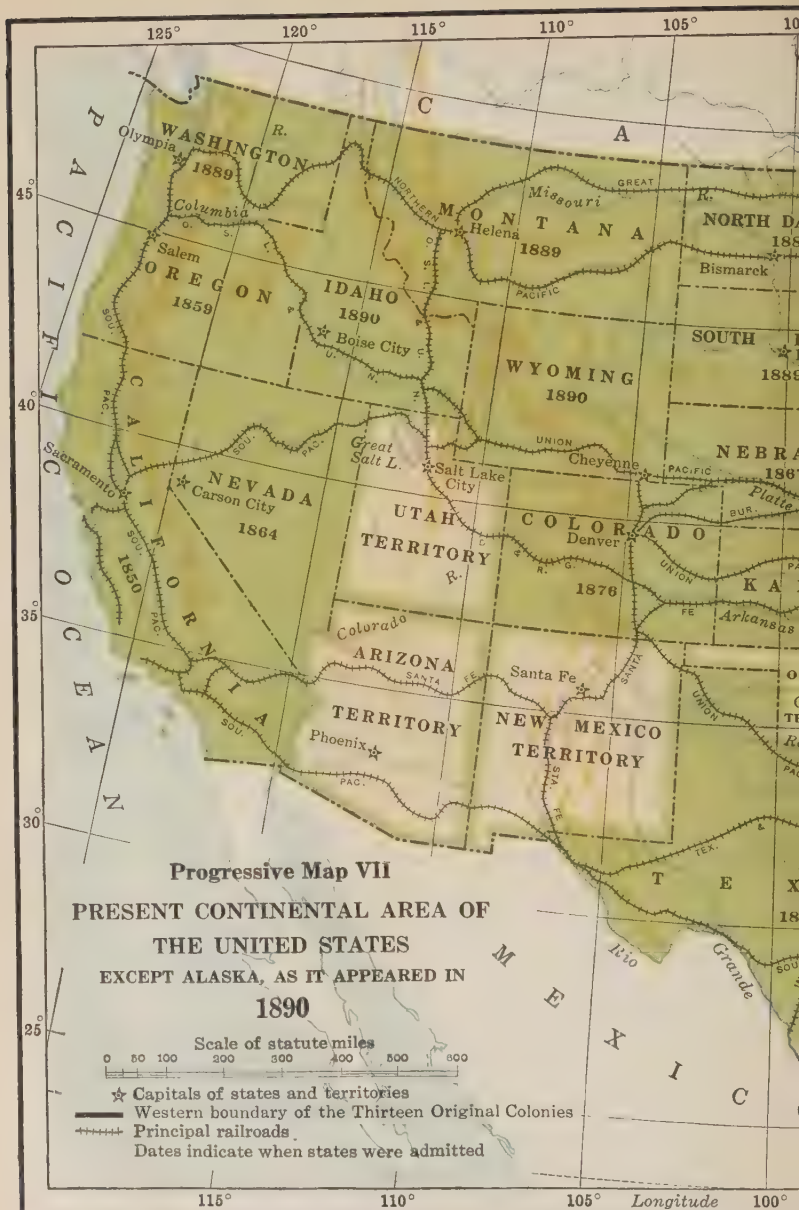


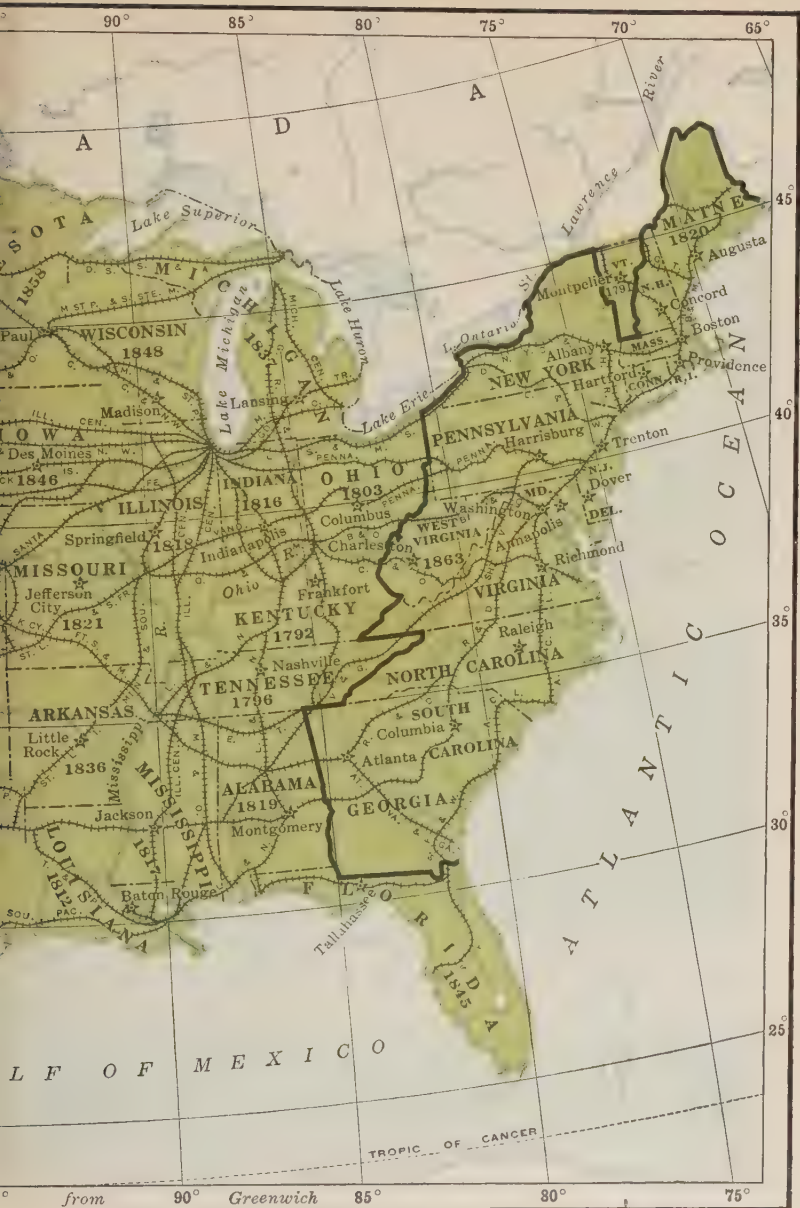
ANDREW JOHNSON

RUTHERFORD B. HAYES

Politics during Reconstruction Days, 1865–1876. About the time that the quarrel between Congress and President Johnson came to an end, people began to think of General U. S. Grant for the presidency.¹ In 1868 he was chosen over the Democratic candidate, Horatio Seymour, who had been governor of New York. In 1872 he was again elected, his opponent being Horace Greeley, editor of the *New York Tribune*.

¹ Grant's birthplace was Ohio; the year 1822. He graduated from West Point and was a soldier in the Mexican War. Afterwards he resigned from the army and worked at several things. On the whole, he seems to have been a failure at them. Then came the Civil War, and his great successes as an officer. He died in 1885.





It was during these years that politics became very corrupt; in fact, the ten or fifteen years after the Civil War was one of the most corrupt periods in American history. Men seemed determined to get rich as fast as they could, no



A NEW YORK STREET IN 1869, SHOWING THE OLD NORTH DUTCH CHURCH

matter how dishonest the means might be. In New York City several men, headed by William M. Tweed, got control of the government and stole millions upon millions of dollars. It was several years before these men could be put out of office and driven from the country or put in jail. Members of Congress were given money by people who wanted their

votes. Tax collectors took bribes for letting favored people fail to pay their taxes. Of course Grant was not to blame for all these things. Nevertheless he did not always choose the best men to help him direct affairs; some of his friends were dishonest; and some were friendly with dishonest tax officers. For these reasons there were objections to Grant as president.

In 1876 the presidential election was between General Rutherford B. Hayes, Republican, and Samuel J. Tilden, Democrat. Both were honest and able citizens. The election was so close that nobody could tell who was really chosen. Hence a committee of fifteen men was appointed called the Electoral Commission. Eight of the fifteen were Republicans and seven were Democrats. The Commission decided by a vote of eight to seven that Hayes was elected.¹

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Explain why the Confederate states were not asked to propose a plan whereby they could get back into the Union.

2. Show how the plan adopted by Congress to get the South back into the Union differed from the Lincoln-Johnson plan.

3. Make a list of military men who were elected to the office of president between 1789 and 1879.

4. Explain these terms or expressions: Electoral Commission, Military Reconstruction Act, Ku-Klux Klan, Freedmen's Bureau.

5. Read "Why Reconstruction Failed," in *The Reconstruction Period (1865-1877)*, pp. 188 ff., Vol. IX of *Great Epochs in American History*.

6. Now is the time to read James Morgan's treatment of Johnson in *Our Presidents*, pp. 160-170. What he says about Grant may also be read now. It is on pages 171-185.

¹ Rutherford B. Hayes was the nineteenth president. Like Grant he was born in Ohio, and in the same year, 1822. Hayes served in the Civil War and was a lawyer. He was a quiet, modest, gentle man, very religious and very honest. He was three times governor of Ohio before he became president. He died in 1893.

UNIT II. POPULATION, IMMIGRATION, AND THE WEST

More things happened in the United States during the thirty-five years between 1865 and 1900 than in any thirty-five years in our history before 1860. It was a period of great activity. Everything was changing, and changing fast. The speed of railroad trains, for example, greatly increased. People traveled faster and went about more. They had more property, more clothing, a greater variety of food, more amusements, more luxuries — more everything. *Before the Civil War* most people lived on farms or in small villages. Life was about the same one year that it was the next. But *after the Civil War* things changed more quickly. Machinery that was the best thing to be found one year might be out of date within a year or two. Styles that were common one year might look strange and out of place the next year. Not all these changes, of course, took place in an instant. Nevertheless the thirty-five years from 1865 to 1900 were years of rapid change in our United States.

1. WHAT WERE THE GREAT CHANGES IN POPULATION AND IMMIGRATION?

The rapid changes in population show what was going on. In 1900 there were forty-five states and three territories in the Union. Twenty-eight of these increased their population between 1870 and 1900 by at least half a million each. Thirteen of the twenty-eight received at least a million each. New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, and Texas, which increased most quickly, each received about two thirds as many new people as there were in the entire United States when Washington became president. All this means that the same inflow of people into the United States that we saw going on in earlier days was taking place after the Civil War.

The Immigrants and where they Settled. Many millions of the new people of America were immigrants from foreign countries. When famines occurred in Europe and business was good in America, more immigrants left home for the New World; when business was poor in the United States, then fewer came. Yet large numbers arrived every year, whatever the conditions. The steamship companies advertised widely all over Europe and gave low rates to immigrants in order to stimulate people to come. The following figures give some idea of the part played by immigration in the growth of the United States from 1870 to 1900: the smallest immigration during one year between 1870 and 1900 was 141,857 in 1877; the largest immigration during one year between 1870 and 1900 was 788,992 in 1882. Every year from 1870 to 1900, therefore, immigrants were coming to the United States by the hundred thousand. So great was the stream that by 1900 one third of all the white people in the United States were either foreign-born themselves or had parents one or both of whom were foreigners.

For the most part the immigrants *did not settle in the South*. Many of them settled in the East, especially in the cities. The Irish, for example, frequently found work in the factories of Massachusetts and New York. The Germans went more often to the farms of Illinois, Wisconsin, and other Middle Western states. The Swedes and Norwegians went to Wisconsin, Minnesota, South Dakota, and even farther west, and, like the Germans, took up farming.

The Change in Immigration. Besides growing in amount, immigration changed in another respect. *Before 1882* most of the immigrants were from Germany, the British Isles, and the Scandinavian peninsula; that is, they came from northern and western Europe. *After 1882* they began to come increasingly from Italy, Austria, and Russia; that is, they came from southern and eastern Europe.

The great increase in the amount of immigration, and the change in the countries from which most immigrants came, led Congress to pass an immigration law in 1882. This law had two important provisions:

Immigrants had to pay a tax when they entered the country. At first this was fifty cents, but later it was increased.



IMMIGRANTS FROM POLAND

Certain objectionable people, such as convicts and insane persons, were forbidden to enter under any conditions whatever.

In the same year another law forbade the immigration of Chinese laborers. This law, with some changes, has been in force ever since.

Immigration and the Public Land. Besides poor crops abroad, prospering business in America, and the advertising of the steamship companies, there was another reason for immigration. When the Civil War broke out, the United States still had immense amounts of public land in the West.

In 1862 Congress decided to *give this land* to anybody who would settle on it. Hence the Homestead Act was passed. The law provided that a head of a family might claim one hundred and sixty acres; that he must actually occupy it for five years, and then the land became his.

The ease with which good land could be obtained in the American West was a great temptation to the poor European farmer who could not pay the cost of a farm at home; hence he looked with longing eyes to America and came when he could. A man who lived in the West at this time said: "Trains swarming with immigrants from every country of the world were haltingly creeping out upon the level lands. Norwegians, Swedes, Danes, Scotchmen, Englishmen, and Russians all mingled in this flood of land-seekers rolling toward the sundown plain."

The Immigrant's Part in American Life. The United States has met great dangers through having so many immigrants, but there have been advantages as well.

Disadvantages. Sometimes immigrants collected in communities or neighborhoods and lived together without becoming Americans. These did not learn the American language, they did not take any interest in American government, and they did not take up American ways of living. Many of them were unwilling to obey American laws.

Many of the immigrants were poor and had no skill in any trade or occupation; therefore they had to accept low wages and live in crowded houses in unhealthful surroundings.

Advantages. On the other hand, the work of the immigrants was needed. They did a great share of the work in the cotton and woolen mills, the iron and steel factories, the clothing shops, and other places. About this time many cities were laying sewers and water pipes and paving their streets. Much of this hard work, if not most of it, was done by immigrants.

Many immigrants have become useful citizens. Sometimes they or their children have held high offices — have been governors of states, members of the cabinet, and the like. Some have become leading authors, musicians, artists, educators, and business men.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. On an outline map name the states and territories in 1900. Place the date of admission on all states except the thirteen original ones.
2. Using the data below, make a bar diagram to show the trend in immigration between 1865 and 1900.

FIVE-YEAR PERIODS	TOTAL IMMIGRANTS IN ROUND NUMBERS
1866-1870	1,510,000
1871-1875	1,720,000
1876-1880	1,080,000
1881-1885	2,970,000
1886-1890	2,270,000
1891-1895	2,280,000
1896-1900	1,560,000

3. Make a list of four important reasons for the heavy flow of immigrants into the United States during the eighteen-eighties and eighteen-nineties.
4. Discuss in a brief floor talk the good and bad phases of the heavy immigration to the United States between 1865 and 1900.

2. HOW THE WEST FILLED UP

Migration to the Middle West. The migration to the Middle West, which was noticed before 1860, continued after 1865. Hundreds of thousands of people went to the older states such as Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Kentucky, Tennessee, and to the southern Mississippi Valley. But the new migration went farther west. Iowa, which had been admitted as a state in 1846, increased fast after 1865; so also did Minnesota, Kansas, and Nebraska. A tremendous area of prairie

land which had been called Dakota Territory was divided into two parts. These were admitted in 1889 as North Dakota and South Dakota. There was still room for many more people in the West, as most of the states were larger than all New England. North Dakota, for example, was more than eight times as large as Massachusetts, but its population in the year 1900 was scarcely more than half that of Boston.



A TYPE OF THE TEMPORARY HOME BUILT AT THE TIME OF THE WESTERN
MIGRATION DURING THE SEVENTIES AND EIGHTIES

But because the number of people who settled between Missouri and the Rocky Mountains was small, they saw some interesting things which will never be seen again in the United States except in pictures.

A View of the Great Plains. The map on page 502 shows the Great Plains. They were bounded on the west by the Rockies, on the north by the Canadian line, on the east by the settled parts of Iowa, Missouri, and Arkansas, and on the south by the settlements in Texas. The size of the plains is hard to imagine even for one who has traveled across them. So big was this unsettled country that if it were stretched out like a

long, straight path or highway ten miles wide it would go *nearly four times around the earth.*

The prairie was a great grass-covered country. It was flat, for the most part, with few trees and not a great many rivers. In the parts where there was plenty of rain the grass was high — reaching to a pony's nose. It was dotted with the yellow of the wild sunflower, the blue of the larkspur, and other wild plants. Where rain was scarce the grass was poorer, and the ground was frequently covered with a dusty gray shrub called sagebrush. In summer the heat was intense; in winter the north winds blew cruelly down across the plains toward Texas.

Indians, Buffaloes, Cattlemen, and Cattle. When settlers began to move out on the plains after 1865, they found the Indians already there, having been given land by the government. There were the Sioux in Dakota, the Blackfeet and the Crows in Montana, the Cheyennes in the south, the Navajos in New Mexico and Arizona, and others scattered here and there between. There were also the buffaloes — millions of them. These splendid animals roamed over the plains in huge herds, hundreds of thousands in a herd, munching the grass. The Indians killed them for meat, and used the hides for clothing and for protection from the weather. Here and there, too, were thieves, who made a living by stealing the possessions of travelers who went across the plains in stagecoaches or in wagons or on horseback. In 1863 a railroad was started to run between Omaha and San Francisco. It was finished in 1869, when the last spike was driven near Ogden, in Utah.

If we could have crossed the plains in 1865, however, we should have seen something besides Indians, buffaloes, thieves, travelers, and workmen building the railroad. For there were the cattlemen, — the cowboys, — with their herds of cattle and their ponies. And thereby hangs a story.

Roaming about on the huge, open plains of Texas and New Mexico were large numbers of wild cattle. They had

come over the Rio Grande from Mexico years before. They would be a splendid supply of meat if they could only be brought to Eastern cities, where the people lived who needed it. And so cowboys in Texas began collecting the wild cattle into herds; then they drove the herds across the hot, dry plains — hundreds of miles — to some point on the new



THE INDIAN OF THE SEVENTIES AS HE APPEARED IN THE CATTLE COUNTRY

Copyright by E. M. Newman

railroad which was being built across toward the mountains. This was the "long drive." When they reached the cattle town on the railroad, they shipped the steers and cows to Omaha or Kansas City or Chicago, to be killed for meat. Then the cowboy called upon his strong little pony to carry him back south to get another herd.

The Settler and the Cattleman. If settlers were pouring out on the plains to build towns and farms, how could great herds of buffaloes roam about the country? How could Indians hunt

their game? How could cowboys drive herds of cattle across to the railroad towns? The answer is that all these things had to stop. The railroad took out hunters who gradually shot down the buffaloes, until by 1890 only a few were left. The government took from the Indian a large part of his land and made him live on small tracts called reservations. When the



A HERD OF CATTLE, A COMMON SIGHT ON THE WESTERN PLAINS AT ANY TIME
AFTER THE CIVIL WAR

Photograph by Ewing Galloway

Indian refused to give up his land, war resulted, and the Indian was beaten. The settlers took up land, fenced it in with barbed wire, and refused to let the cowboy cross with his herd of wild steers. The cowboy fought the farmer and was beaten. The government helped the farmer because it had given the land to the settler to live on and cultivate. By 1890 the long drive had come to an end.

The Meat Supply of Today. We all know, however, that our meat supply still comes mainly from the plains. What hap-

pened when the cowboy had to give up the long drive? Here and there all over the western edge of the plains were established huge cattle farms called ranches, especially in the Dakotas, Montana, Wyoming, and Colorado.¹ Cattle were raised on these farms instead of being driven over the long trail, and were kept on the ranch until ready for shipment on freight cars to the slaughterhouses.

Special freight cars began to be made in which ice was packed. In such cars the freshly slaughtered meat was shipped to the East. Meats were cooked or preserved so that they would not decay, were sealed in tin cans, and shipped to all parts of the world.

The Last Plains State. The last part of the plains to be opened to settlement by the farmer was that which we know as Oklahoma. This had long been called the Indian Territory. It was a huge stretch of plain just north of Texas, on which the government had made many tribes of Indians settle. Because the demand for good farms was very great, the government bought the land from the red men. Then the red men were given small farms to live on, and the rest of the land was opened for sale to anybody wishing to take it. On April 22, 1889, at noon, Oklahoma was open for settlement. A blast on a bugle was the signal that people could enter the new fertile land. Thousands of men were waiting at the border, and when the blast came, in they went. Some went on foot; some, on horseback or in wagons. By nightfall fifty thousand people were living in Oklahoma. In 1907 it was admitted as a state. At that time it had nearly eight hundred thousand inhabitants, including the Indians.

¹ Some idea of the size of these farms may be gained from such facts as the following: in 1900 Montana had 6,170,483 sheep, and Wyoming had 5,099,613. Texas had 9,500,000 cattle, and Iowa had 9,700,000 swine.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Using the data below, illustrate by means of a bar diagram the increase in population of each state listed. The figures for each date are in round numbers.

STATES	1870	1880	1890	1900
Ohio	2,660,000	3,190,000	3,670,000	4,150,000
Indiana	1,680,000	1,970,000	2,190,000	2,510,000
Illinois	2,530,000	3,070,000	3,820,000	4,820,000
Michigan	1,180,000	1,630,000	2,090,000	2,420,000
Kentucky	1,320,000	1,640,000	1,850,000	2,140,000
Tennessee	1,250,000	1,540,000	1,760,000	2,020,000
Iowa	1,190,000	1,620,000	1,910,000	2,230,000
Minnesota	430,000	780,000	1,310,000	1,750,000
Kansas	360,000	990,000	1,420,000	1,470,000
Nebraska	120,000	450,000	1,060,000	1,060,000

2. Determine the size of the Great Plains in square miles from the data given in the paragraph "A View of the Great Plains" (p. 501).

3. Give a floor talk on the subject "The Great Plains in the Late Eighteen-Sixties."

4. Make a list of all the places mentioned in the section. Locate each on a map.

5. Fix in your memory the meaning of the following: long drive, sagebrush, cowboy, reservation, ranch, Indian Territory.

6. Explain how and why the long drive came to an end.

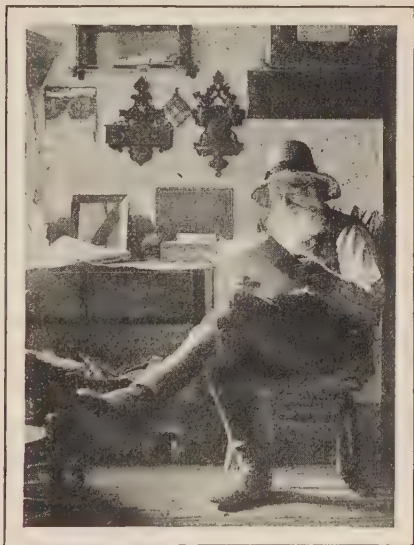
7. Be sure to read "Cows and Cowboys," in *The Pathbreakers from River to Ocean*, by Grace R. Hebard, chap. viii.

8. Become familiar with *The Story of the Cowboy*, by Emerson Hough, and *The Book of Cowboys*, by Francis Rolt-Wheeler.

3. HOW THE PEOPLE IN THE MIDDLE WEST LIVED

The Day's Work. Many people who grew up as boys and girls in the Middle West just after the Civil War can tell us what their life was like. Nearly everybody lived on farms or in very small villages. The men worked at plowing, planting, cultivating, and reaping, mending the fences and buildings,

and taking care of the cattle, horses, and hogs. The women did the housework, prepared the meals for the hungry workmen, made and mended the clothes, kept the milk pails clean, made the butter, and preserved the food for the winter months. No child except the tiniest was so small as to escape having to help father or mother. There was the wood box to keep well filled, there was hoeing to be done in the garden, and father usually wanted aid in the plowing and harvesting. The girls helped mother with the dishes, the milk, the mending, and such housework as making the beds, sweeping, and dusting. Everybody had to go early to bed, for he must rise early and get out to work again. On Sundays there was a little relief from work, for most people went to church and did only the most necessary tasks. Now and then, too, there was a day off for a fishing trip, a hunt, or a visit to some neighboring town when a circus came that way. Many people still wore homemade clothes, and until the cold weather the boys and girls went barefooted. Of course their feet got toughened after a time, so that walking across rough fields was not so painful. And yet many a grown-up still remembers the stubbed toes from which he suffered in the days when shoes and stockings were scarcer than they are now.



AFTER THE DAY'S WORK, IN THE
SEVENTIES

Photograph by Clifton Johnson

Hardships and Complaints. It is easy to see why the Middle Western states have many problems unlike those of the East.

Let us imagine two states. In one, mining and manufacturing and agriculture and banking are carried on. If the mines give out, the people still have their manufacturing and agriculture and banking to depend upon. But imagine another state in which only agriculture is carried on. And imagine that a hot summer comes with no rain or with swarms of grasshoppers that eat up all the crops. In such a state anything that hurts agriculture hurts everybody, for there is nothing to fall back on if the crops fail.

Such was the condition of much of the Middle West for years after the Civil War. Everybody ran a farm, and when times were hard they were hard for everybody.

During the eighteen-seventies and eighteen-eighties there was a good deal of distress in the West. In some places the rainfall was too little. Grasshoppers came. In other places more food was grown than could be eaten or sold. Farmers could not sell their crops for enough to pay for planting them. Some farmers complained that the railroads charged too much for carrying their crops. Some thought that the government ought to make a great deal more silver and paper money, because they believed that prices would go up if this were done.

The Western Farmer; New Political Parties. Shortly after the Civil War the West began to demand that something be done to help the farmer. Even as early as 1868, when General Grant was elected president for the first time, many Westerners tried to have the government issue more paper money. In 1876 the Westerners organized the "Greenback" party for the same purpose. When this failed to make much progress, the Western farmers started another, called the People's, or Populist, party about 1890. The Populists called for

many reforms. For one thing, they thought that the government could buy and coin the silver which was being mined in the Rocky Mountain states. In this way the miners would get a market for their silver, and more money would be put in circulation. We shall see later what resulted when farmers from both the South and the West began to join the Populist party.

The Grange. The complaint of the farmer against the railroad was taken up in a different way.

Soon after the end of the Civil War a man named Oliver H. Kelley started the Patrons of Husbandry, more often called the Grange. It was a society which was intended to include all people interested in farming. Kelley hoped that each town or village would have a branch society, and that the farmers and their wives and children would meet every little while to talk over the farmers' troubles and also to have entertainments — singing, speaking, plays, and so on. The Western farmers liked the Grange idea. It gave them a chance to have a good time, to see their neighbors, and to pick up some new ideas. Within a few years hundreds of thousands of people had become Grangers.

At the very time when the Grange was growing so fast, the Western farmers were having a hard time of it, as we have seen. To better their condition, the Grangers decided to make the railroads charge lower rates for carrying farm products to the cities. They passed laws in state legislatures which fixed the amounts that the railroads might charge. But the railroads crossed many states, of course. In some states there were Granger laws to control the railroads, and in some states there were none; hence the farmer decided to go to Washington and try to get a law about railroads which should cover the whole United States. Thus originated what is now generally called the Interstate Commerce Act of 1887. The Grangers were not the only people who were interested

in getting this law passed, but they were more active than anybody else. The law was passed on February 4, 1887. It contained three important parts:

The railroads must not charge unreasonable rates.

They must not charge one person more than another.

A group of five men was appointed called the Interstate Commerce Commission. These men were to have an office in Washington, and hear complaints against the railroads and see that the railroad companies obeyed the law.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Give a floor talk on the subject "A Day in a Middle-Western Home in the Early Eighteen-Seventies."

2. During the eighteen-seventies and eighteen-eighties the farmers in the Middle West were a discontented and restless people. Explain why this was true.

3. Show how the Greenback and Populist parties might have aided the Western farmer.

4. The Western farmers hated the railroads in the eighteen eighties. Explain the reason for this feeling, and tell what was done to remedy the situation.

5. *The Bullwhacker* and *The Prairie Schooner*, by W. F. Hooker, *The Adventures of Buffalo Bill*, by W. F. Cody, and the three books by Mrs. Elizabeth B. Custer listed on pages 479-480 will interest you. Do not miss reading the whole of one of them.

4. WHAT WAS GOING ON BEYOND THE PLAINS?

The Rocky Mountain States. If we could have crossed the Middle West, which we have been describing, at any time after 1865, we should have found the country less and less settled as we got farther west. After we had crossed the plains we should have come to the huge area occupied by the Rocky Mountains, where the population was very small indeed.

Eight states occupy the Rocky Mountain region. They are Nevada, admitted to the Union in 1864; Colorado, admitted in 1876; Montana, admitted in 1889; Idaho and Wyoming, both admitted in 1890; Utah, admitted in 1896;¹ and Arizona and New Mexico, both admitted in 1912. These states contain nearly nine hundred thousand square miles of land; when the first census after the Civil War was taken, in 1870, they contained only three hundred and fifteen thousand people, so that every man, woman, and child might have had between two and three square miles of land all to himself.

Settlers were first attracted to the mountain states because of the precious metals discovered there. Nevada was found to possess silver; in Colorado there were gold, silver, and lead; Idaho and Montana and Wyoming were searched for similar treasures. Little mining towns sprang up; some became great cities, such as Denver; others dwindled away and were abandoned completely.

In a short time there were more men to work the mines than there were good mines to be worked. Hence people turned their attention to raising cattle in the fertile mountain valleys. Agriculture began to flourish. The new interests attracted more settlers. The census of 1870 and the census of 1900 show the result:

In 1900 Wyoming had ten times as many people as in 1870.

In 1900 Idaho had eleven times as many people as in 1870.

In 1900 Montana had twelve times as many people as in 1870.

In 1900 Arizona had thirteen times as many people as in 1870.

In 1900 Colorado had fourteen times as many people as in 1870.

¹ The case of Utah is interesting. Recalling its early history as described on page 375, we remember that the Mormons had gone far into the Rocky Mountains to set up a colony in 1847. After the Civil War the people living in other parts of the Union began to demand that the Mormons stop their custom of polygamy; that is, allowing a man to have more than one wife. At last the Mormons gave up the custom. Utah was admitted as a state in 1896. By that time it had about a quarter of a million people. Its capital, Salt Lake City, has many beautiful streets and buildings, and is visited every year by many travelers.

For many years after the close of the Civil War, life in the mountain states was as rough as it was on the plains in the sixties and seventies. The Indians were always dangerous. Criminals and other rough characters from the East fled to the West to escape the clutches of the law. Trains and stage-coaches were sometimes stopped by armed men, and the passengers robbed of their valuables. Men commonly went armed with a revolver and knew how to pull it out quickly and shoot soon enough to protect themselves. As time went on, law and order were established. The rough characters left for other places, or settled on farms or ranches and became law-abiding citizens. Life in the mountain states became more like life in other parts of the country. The people of the East, however, continued for years afterwards to imagine that the West was "wild and woolly" and inhabited only by criminals and Indians.

The Pacific Coast States. Beyond the Rocky Mountain states lie the three Pacific-coast states: California, admitted in 1850; Oregon, admitted in 1859; and Washington, in 1889. These states, especially California and Oregon, had been settled to a considerable extent before the Civil War. Their further growth depended on a railroad.

The railway which was being built across the plains from Omaha reached the middle of Utah in 1869. At the same time another railroad was being built eastward from Sacramento. This also reached the middle of Utah in 1869. And there one day the two roads met. The last spike was driven in, and the East was connected with the West. After the Union Pacific Railroad was successfully completed, other lines were built, so that by 1884 a traveler could cross to the Pacific coast by any one of six ways.

Migration to the Coast. The railroad made a journey to the Pacific coast a far different thing from the dangerous, hard journey in a wagon over the Oregon Trail. Where a few

went before, a thousand now took the trains. By thirty years after the Union Pacific was finished, people who had made homes in the Far West numbered nearly a million and three quarters. They came from every state in the Union — from far-away Maine, from Pennsylvania, from the South, and from the Mississippi Valley. Some were attracted by



THE JOINING OF THE RAILROADS NEAR OGDEN, IN UTAH, 1869

Photograph by Ewing Galloway

the mines; others by the mildness and healthfulness of the climate; others went to cut down the mammoth forests or to grow fruits and nuts or to plant grain in the wide, fertile valleys. Railroad companies published pictures and printed glowing advertisements about fertile land to be had almost for the asking and about wonderful wheat, vegetables, and other products which grew to an unheard-of size near the Columbia River, the Willamette, the Sacramento, and the San Joaquin.

So the westward tide of migration that began with the founding of the little colonies at Jamestown in 1607 and at Plymouth in 1620 now reached its western limit, — stopped by the waves of the Pacific Ocean.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. On an outline map of the western United States show the eight Rocky Mountain states with the date of admission to the Union.

2. Below is given the population of five of the Rocky Mountain states in 1870 and in 1900. By means of a bar diagram show the increase of each in population.

POPULATION IN ROUND NUMBERS

STATE	1870	1900
Wyoming	9,000	92,000
Idaho	14,000	161,000
Montana	20,000	243,000
Arizona	9,000	122,000
Colorado	39,000	539,000

3. Explain the origin and meaning of the expression "wild and woolly West."

4. For what reasons did people first go to the Far Western states? Did the reasons change in later years? Why?

5. The short paragraph at the top of this page speaks of the westward migration that began with Jamestown and ended with the Pacific Ocean. You can follow the progress of this migration on the progressive colored maps.

6. Make a list of the ways by which a traveler in 1884 could have crossed to the Pacific coast.

7. Using the data below, make a bar diagram to show the increase in population of the Pacific-coast states between 1870 and 1900.

POPULATION IN ROUND NUMBERS

STATE	1870	1880	1890	1900
California	560,000	864,000	1,213,000	1,485,000
Oregon	90,000	174,000	317,000	413,000
Washington	23,000	75,000	357,000	518,000

UNIT III. THE AMERICAN CITY

Not only did the people migrate westward to the new lands, but more and more they moved to the cities to live after the Civil War. When the war broke out, four fifths of the people lived in the country and only one fifth in the cities. By 1900 two fifths lived in the cities, and by 1920 more than half. Besides moving to the cities, people frequently moved from the state in which they were born into some other state where better farms could be found, or better pay, or better work, or a better climate. In every state were to be found people from every other state of the Union. Hence it appears that the American people moved (1) westward, (2) to other states than the one in which they were born, (3) to the cities.

1. HOW AMERICAN CITIES AROSE AND GREW

Where are the Fast-Growing Cities? More cities are to be found in the northeastern part of the country (that is, the part of the country east of the Mississippi River and north of the Potomac and Ohio) than anywhere else. Fewest cities have grown in the South and in the Rocky Mountain states, yet in both these sections the cities have grown faster than the country districts. Everybody knows of cities in his own state which have grown rapidly. The following lists show some of the cities in the various parts of the country which grew more than 85 per cent during the ten years from 1890 to 1900.

I. IN THE NORTHEAST

Everett (Mass.)
Mount Vernon (N.Y.)
Bronx Borough (of New York City)
Atlantic City (N.J.)
Passaic (N.J.)
Perth Amboy (N.J.)
New Castle (Pa.)

II. IN THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY

Lorain (Ohio)
East St. Louis (Ill.)
Green Bay (Wis.)
Superior (Wis.)
Joplin (Mo.)
South Omaha (Nebr.)
Oklahoma City (Okla.)

III. IN THE MOUNTAIN AND FAR-WESTERN STATES

Colorado Springs (Colo.)

Butte (Mont.)

Berkeley (Calif.)

Los Angeles (Calif.)

Pasadena (Calif.)

Portland (Ore.)

Seattle (Wash.)

Spokane (Wash.)

Changes in Buildings in the Cities. Before the cities began to grow so large, the buildings were only a few stories high;



WALL STREET, NEW YORK, ABOUT 1880 AND ABOUT 1927

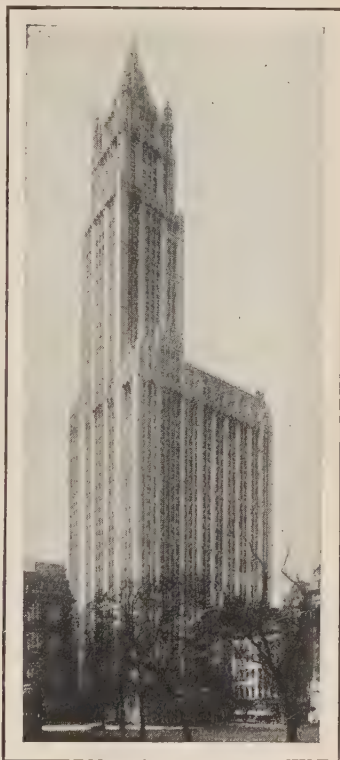
but when people began to pour into the cities, land became more and more costly. Taller and taller buildings were put up. Elevators came into use about 1868.

Two dangers then appeared. If the buildings were made of wood, there was great danger of fire, and, besides, the lower walls had to be very thick to hold up a tall building. Even brick was not strong enough for the tallest buildings. About 1890 builders in Chicago and New York began "steel-

skeleton construction." This means that the frame of the building is made of steel beams which bear nearly all the weight. The brick walls merely cover the steel and hold the windows and doors. In this way such a building as the Woolworth Building in New York is made seven hundred and sixty feet high.

Dwellings known as apartment houses began to be built in the United States soon after the Civil War. They were copied after similar buildings in Europe, but were more convenient. About 1880 some American apartment houses began to have elevators and electric lights. Some were made fireproof. All the apartments were heated from a central heating plant in the basement, hot water was brought to all the apartments from a heater below, and bathtubs began to be more common than before; in short, the modern, comfortable, and convenient apartment house came into being. Such comforts explain why many people were ready

to live in the city and forsake the country home, where water had to be pumped from a well and carried into the house; where fuel had to be cut in the woods and piled up in the woodshed; and where the house might be freezing cold in the morning until somebody got up and started a fire.



THE WOOLWORTH BUILDING, NEW YORK, A "MODERN SKYSCRAPER"

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More attention was also paid to public buildings, such as city halls, courthouses, and libraries. Monuments were set up in many a village and town to do honor to the soldiers and sailors who took part in the Civil War. Many of these buildings and monuments are now thought to be lacking in artistic taste. A beginning was made, however, and the artistic quality gradually improved as time went on.

During the same time (between 1865 and 1900) many cities set off public parks. Among the first were Prospect Park in Brooklyn and Central Park in New York, which were started just after the Civil War. Chicago set aside very large amounts of land for such purposes. (It may be easy to find out when the earliest park was started in any city in which you have lived.)

Police and Fire Departments. About the time of the Civil War and just afterwards, police and fire departments were started. There is an interesting story connected with each of these.

In earlier times American cities had watchmen who stood guard about the city at night. There were usually no guards during the day. As these men ordinarily worked daytimes, they frequently slept at their posts at night; moreover, they had no uniforms, so that people could not quickly pick them out in times of need.

Between 1830 and 1860, however, there were many riots and fights in the cities. Gangs, such as the "Rats" in Philadelphia and the "Bowery Boys" in New York, stole and burned property, and injured and even killed people. Sometimes thousands of people took part in the fights. It became necessary to have a regular police force both night and day: men who would have no other work to do, and men who would have uniforms. New York and Philadelphia seem to have set the pace for other cities by starting modern police departments just before the Civil War broke out.

Before the Civil War, fires in American cities were put out by companies of young men who were not in the employ of the city at all. Such a group of men would form a club, buy some hose and ladders, and go to any fire when they felt like it. Sometimes they set fires in order to try their skill; sometimes different clubs fell to fighting one another on the way to a fire and forgot all about the fire itself; sometimes they let the fire burn and stole all the property in the building that they could carry off. Cincinnati led the way to a change by using powerful fire engines and having all the firemen hired and paid by the city.

In 1871 there was a frightful fire in Chicago, and another in Boston in 1872. Millions of dollars' worth of property and scores of lives were lost.

Cities began at once to improve their fire-fighting apparatus. Firemen were hired and paid by the cities; they were required to wear uniforms, and they were trained in handling the apparatus and in putting out fires. Thus began the modern fire departments which are so important in every American city and town.



OLD AND NEW FIRE-FIGHTING EQUIPMENT¹

¹ Both of these pictures are actual photographs. The upper engine was drawn by hand and the pumping was done by steam. The only lights were the small oil lanterns which are shown in front on the ground. The lower picture shows a modern fire engine, driven by a gasoline motor. The pumping is done by a high-power engine.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Counting as cities all places of two thousand five hundred or more inhabitants, 29.5 per cent of the people in the United States in 1880 lived in cities and 70.5 per cent in the country. In 1900 there were 40.5 per cent living in cities and 59.5 per cent in the country. Make a bar diagram to show these changes.

2. Locate on a map some of the cities mentioned on pages 515-516. Find out if you can why some of these cities grew so rapidly during the ten years from 1890 to 1900.

3. Make a list of the changes in buildings in cities between 1868 and 1900.

4. Give a floor talk on the beginnings of the modern police and fire departments.

5. Make a list of all the things common in our present-day cities that had their beginning after the Civil War.

2. HOW CITIES HAVE INFLUENCED AMERICAN LIFE

Influence of Cities on Games and Vacations. Everybody is familiar with another change which the cities brought about. When nearly all boys and girls lived on farms, they did not need any more physical exercise than they got working in the fields and doing "chores." Moreover, they had little time to spend in such things as games and sports.

But after the Civil War there was a change. More people lived in cities, and needed physical exercise and entertainment after working in offices and stores. P. T. Barnum brought together his famous circus and went from town to town and even to Europe; William F. Cody, generally known as "Buffalo Bill," gathered Indians, cowboys, ponies, and rifles, and traveled about with a "Wild West Show"; the National Baseball League was started in 1876, and the American League in 1882. Baseball became common, tennis was started, and every high school and college had its foot-

ball, baseball, and track teams.¹ A machine called the bicycle was introduced, with one very large wheel, over which the rider sat, and a very small wheel behind to balance the rider. Late in the eighteen-eighties there was invented what was called the safety bicycle, which resembled the one we know now.

Another result of the growth of cities was that more people began to take vacations. When nearly everybody lived on farms, they could not go away or stop work for a week, two weeks, or a month in the summer. The crops were growing then, and the farmer was busier than ever. Things were different in the city. Factories and stores and offices could allow a few men at a time to take a vacation. More and more people went for a short time in the summer to the seashore or to the mountains or to a lake, or into the country, where their parents and grandparents had lived. So this peculiar change came about. If you had asked any man in 1865 whether he was going to take his vacation at the seashore or in the mountains, he would scarcely have known what you meant, but by 1900 the idea of taking a vacation had become common.

¹ Everybody who is interested in athletics will see the importance of a great athletic meet in New York in 1895. The London Athletic Club and the New York Athletic Club agreed to have a track meet at New York. Each club collected all the best runners and jumpers in its country. As this was the first great international contest of its kind, it shows just how much progress had been made in the early years of such sport in America. The United States won every event. The events and records made were as follows:

Half-mile run, 1 minute 53 $\frac{2}{5}$ seconds (world's record; that is, nobody had ever run a half mile as fast as this before);

100-yard dash, 9 $\frac{4}{5}$ seconds (equaling world's record);

High jump, 6 feet 5 $\frac{5}{8}$ inches (world's record);

1-mile run, 4 minutes 18 $\frac{1}{5}$ seconds;

220-yard dash, 21 $\frac{3}{5}$ seconds (world's record);

Putting the shot, 43 feet 5 inches;

120-yard hurdle, 15 $\frac{2}{5}$ seconds;

Throwing the hammer, 137 feet 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches;

440-yard run, 49 seconds;

Running broad jump, 22 feet 6 inches;

3-mile run, 15 minutes 36 $\frac{1}{5}$ seconds.

Some Complaints about the Cities. The rapid growth of the cities had many evil effects, besides many good ones. Among the complaints which were made about American cities between 1865 and 1900 were these:

Inefficient Police and Fire Departments. Frequently the police and fire protection was very poor. Both departments were gradually improved during the seventies, eighties, and nineties.



TYPES OF THE BICYCLE

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Dishonest Public Officers. Public officers were too frequently dishonest, and in many cities they actually stole public money.

Tenement Houses. In some cities the tenement houses were built so fast and so poorly that they fell to pieces even before the buildings were finished. Sometimes the houses were not ventilated, or had rooms with no windows, or were not protected from fire. In many cases the people were packed so closely in houses that contagious diseases spread like a fire in dry grass.

Health Conditions. The worst thing about the cities was the danger to health. Many cities took their drinking-water from rivers and lakes into which other cities dumped their sewage and other refuse; as a result, there were epidemics of typhoid fever. Impure milk was sold in the cities, and diseased meat and other harmful things. In New York City in 1865 it was said that one neighborhood had a slaughterhouse



THE NEW YORK SKY LINE BEFORE AND AFTER THE BUILDING OF THE
SKYSCRAPER

where cattle were killed, six tripe establishments, and several other similar factories. The air in the neighborhood was so bad as to be almost unbreathable.

What was done about these evils? Unfortunately not all these things have been done away with everywhere even now, but by 1900 many of them had been taken care of in most cities:

Men who wished to be in the police and fire departments were compelled to take examinations so that the best men

might be picked. These men were then taught how to perform their duties to the best advantage.

Dishonest public officers were driven from office.

Laws were passed to prevent builders from putting up buildings that were not safe. Other laws told just how much window and air space buildings must have, and provided for fire protection.

Cities built reservoirs and took care that all streams flowing into them should contain only pure water. Attempts were made to see that farmers sold only pure milk. Slaughterhouses in many places were compelled to move outside the thickly settled parts of the cities.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Name some of the famous circuses that are yet in existence.
2. Find the present world records for the events in the track meet held in New York in 1895.
3. Show how the cities in the nineties influenced the everyday life of the people living in them.
4. Study the picture of the New York City sky line on page 523. Can you think of any reasons for such high buildings? What new inventions were necessary before such buildings could be constructed?
5. *Resolved*, That the rapid growth of cities in the eighteen-eighties and eighteen-nineties had more evil effects than good ones. Speak for three minutes on either side of the question.

UNIT IV. SIGNIFICANT CHANGES IN INDUSTRY BETWEEN 1865 AND 1900

After 1865, as before, the great industries continued to be agriculture and manufacturing. Each of these, however, was conducted on a larger scale and with new methods and greater results. Several of the changes which took place were so important that they have affected American life ever since.

1. HOW AMERICAN AGRICULTURE CHANGED

How Agriculture changed in the Northeast and South. Since the movement of people to the cities was greatest in the Northeast, the effect on farming was most quickly seen there. In 1900 the amount of land cultivated in New England was less than it was when the Civil War broke out. After 1880 the amount tilled began to get less in the middle-Atlantic states.



CUTTING GRAIN ON A NEBRASKA WHEAT FARM WITH POWER-DRIVEN MACHINERY

We have already seen how the South revived its production of cotton, tobacco, sugar, and rice after the Civil War. The rapid growth of the Northern cities gave rise to a form of agriculture known as truck-farming.

The people of such great cities as Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, and Boston, together with the people of all the smaller cities sprinkled in between, needed large quantities of vegetables and berries. Now it happens that the soil from southern New Jersey down to Georgia is of just the right sort

to grow these things. The farmers found this out. They began to send crates and barrels of fruit and vegetables north. The railroads began to make special cars to carry the goods. During 1900, for example, more than eleven hundred carloads of strawberries were shipped north from North Carolina alone.

The Mississippi Valley States. The United States census said in 1900 that more people were engaged in farming than in any other industry. How could that be if so many people were leaving the farms for the cities in New England and in the middle states? The answer to the conundrum is that unheard-of amounts of land were being opened up in the

Date	
1870	1,958,030,927
1880	2,212,540,927
1890	2,460,107,454
1900	4,717,069,793

VALUE OF FARM PRODUCTS, 1870-1900, IN DOLLARS

Mississippi Valley. In Iowa and the Dakotas, in Texas and Oklahoma (and out on the Pacific coast as well), enough new land was opened up to make a New England or two and have something to spare. The ten states with the most valuable farm products are given below. Anybody can easily tell whether any of these states are in New England, in the middle-Atlantic states, in the Mississippi Valley, or elsewhere.

VALUE OF FARM PRODUCTS IN CERTAIN STATES IN 1900

Iowa	\$365,000,000	Missouri	\$219,000,000
Illinois	346,000,000	Kansas	210,000,000
Ohio	257,000,000	Pennsylvania	208,000,000
New York	245,000,000	Indiana	204,000,000
Texas	240,000,000	Nebraska	163,000,000

Irrigation and the Use of Machinery. As we already know, the opening of the big Western farms on the level prairies

made possible the use of agricultural machinery. The few simple harvesters which McCormick made before the Civil War opened up the way to greater things. These machines were enlarged and improved. More and more farmers were able to buy them. Better plows were made, and more convenient mowers, reapers, cultivators, and harrows. Harvesters were even made that cut grain, gathered it into bundles, and tied the bundles together with twine. For power at this time the farmer depended on the horse.

In some parts of the West the farmer found the land fertile, but the supply of rain was so small that the growing crops withered before harvest time came. This condition was remedied in some places by constructing dams. The reservoirs thus formed collected water in the spring when the snows melted. When the dry time came, the water was carried in pipes and ditches to the cultivated land. This system is known as irrigation. It had made so much progress by 1900 that six states — Colorado, California, Montana, Utah, Idaho, and Wyoming — had together more than half a million acres of irrigated land. As you go through any of these states today you will notice a difference on two sides of the road: on one side nothing grows but dusty, dry bushes; on the other there may be healthy-looking sugar beets or alfalfa. On the side where the crops are growing you will find an irrigation ditch full of water.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

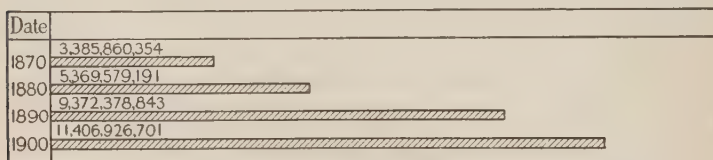
1. Explain the influence of the rise of cities on agriculture in the New England and middle-Atlantic states.
2. Give a brief floor talk on the subject "The Rise of Truck-Farming and Berry-Farming in the South."
3. Compare the machinery used by the farmer in the eightennineties with that used by the farmer in colonial times.

4. Explain the need and value of irrigation. Can you find out what Western states depend most on irrigation?

5. For additional material on changes in agriculture see *The Story of Cotton and the Development of the Cotton States* and *The Story of Corn and the Westward Migration*, both by E. C. Brooks, and *The Story of Agriculture in the United States*, by A. H. Sanford.

2. HOW MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY CHANGED, 1865-1900

Rapid Growth of Manufacturing. More people were engaged in agriculture between 1865 and 1900 than in manufacturing; but, in spite of this, by 1900 the products of the factories were worth more each year than the products of the farm.



VALUE OF MANUFACTURES, 1870-1900, IN DOLLARS

The Civil War was a spur to manufacturing because so many uniforms had to be made, so many guns put together, so much bread made, and so many cans of food packed. After the war the factories continued to hum. People put billions of dollars into shops and factories, and then more billions, until by 1900 nearly ten billion dollars were invested in manufacturing. Every night in 1900 when the factory doors were opened, out came an army of men, women, and children workers — an army nearly a million and a half larger than the whole population of the United States when Washington became president.

The most important things which were being manufactured could almost be guessed, because they are the things which we all need most. They were flour, cereals, meat products, and canned foods; iron and steel for railroads, and steel, lum-

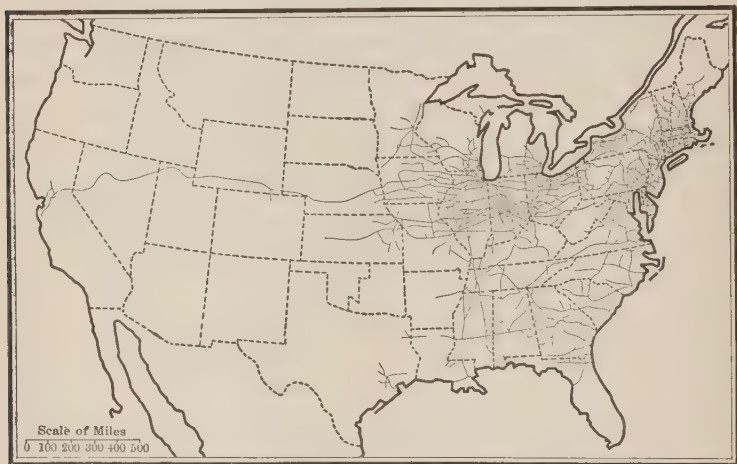
ber, shingles, and so on for houses and other buildings; shoes, cloth, and clothing; paper, books, and newspapers. In other words, the factories made things to eat, things to protect us from the weather, things to wear, and things to read.

More manufacturing was being done in Eastern states, such as New York, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts, than in any others. But the states lying just west of Pennsylvania — Ohio, Illinois, Michigan, Indiana, and Missouri — were pressing on the heels of the leaders. In fact, if we could have flown in an airship across these states in the eighties and nineties, and if we could have watched where the new factories were being built, we should have found them being put up more and more in the West. Manufacturing, like population and agriculture, was gradually spreading into the flat country beyond the Appalachian Mountains. In the South progress was being made in turning out lumber, flour, iron and steel, and cotton goods.

Source of Raw Materials; Labor. The rapid growth of manufacturing demanded bigger supplies of raw materials to work on. The coal and iron of Pennsylvania were mined in constantly larger amounts. Supplies of iron ore around Lake Michigan and Lake Superior were discovered and brought to the manufacturing cities. The forests around the Great Lakes and in the South were cut down. Copper and silver and lead were brought from the Rocky Mountains, from the shores of Lake Superior, from Missouri, and elsewhere. Wells were bored into the ground to get the oil of western Pennsylvania and eastern Ohio. The hides of cattle on the Western plains were carried east to be tanned into leather. In short, every part of the country was searched to find materials for the growing army of factory workers.

If we should look about in any of the great manufacturing cities and towns, we should soon discover where many of the workers came from.

The need for employees in the factories became so great that immigrants fairly swarmed over to meet the demand. In some of the factory towns of New England eight out of every ten of the inhabitants were born across the water or were the children of parents who were born there. Canadians poured across the border to work in the cotton and woolen mills of New England. Germans, Italians, Austrians, Irish, and Russians came to work in the mines, shops, and mills.

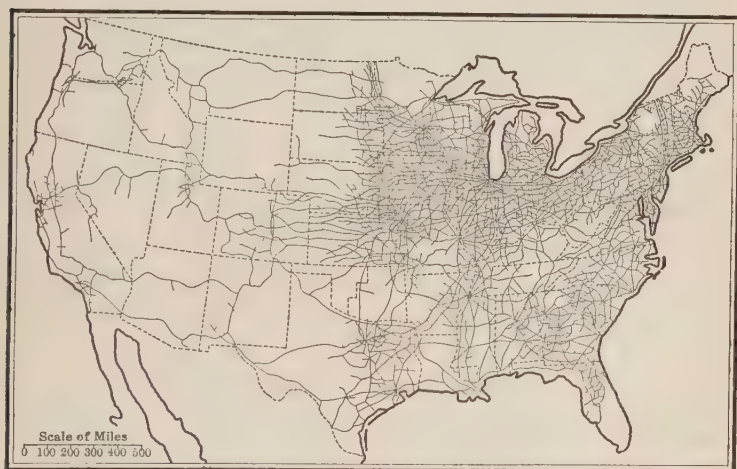


THE RAILROADS IN 1870

Combining Small Companies into Large Ones. During the years from 1865 to 1900, when the army of immigrant workers was coming across the water, another great change was brought about. It can best be explained by telling about something that happened to some railroads in New York State.

When the railroads were first built between Albany and Buffalo, five different railroad companies divided the three hundred miles between the two cities. When one traveled from Albany to Buffalo at that time, he rode from Albany a

short distance to the end of the first railroad; then he got out and hired somebody to carry his trunk across to the next railroad; there he bought another ticket, checked his trunk again, and then waited for the next train on that railroad, and so on for the remaining three roads. Hence in making the short journey of three hundred miles, he had his trunk moved five times, bought five tickets, and waited for five trains. The simplest thing to do, of course, was for one big



THE RAILROADS IN 1890

company to buy and connect the five railroads and carry passengers clear through on one train and one ticket. This was done shortly after the Civil War, and other railroads soon combined in the same way.

Thereupon the small manufacturing companies began to do the same thing. A large number of small oil companies combined into one big one. Many small companies that made matches combined into one large one. It was the same with the factories where sugar and steel and twine and other things were made.

About 1890 the country was complaining bitterly about the big companies and the way they tried to get a monopoly (that is, complete control) of the manufacture of various products. At last, in 1890, Congress passed an act known as the Sherman Anti-Trust law, which forbade any person to get a monopoly or even to try to get a monopoly of trade in any product. The law was not well enforced, however, for many years.

Better Machines and More Products. Then there appeared another change. The big companies could buy big, costly machinery, such as steam shovels, huge looms, heavy engines, and the like. These machines did more work than could be done by human workers. Imagine how much more cloth can be made on a steam-driven loom than can be woven by hand!

The workmen who ran the steam shovels and the huge looms knew that they were turning out more products for their employers; therefore they felt that they had earned more pay.

But here another change appeared. When all the work was done in small factories and shops, the employer knew his workmen personally: he knew their names, knew when there was sickness in the families, and when the employee was an especially good or especially poor workman. But when the factories grew larger and were grouped in big combinations, the employer did not know his men. Frequently the factories where the men worked were in Massachusetts or Ohio or Missouri, but the office was in New York City. For these reasons the working people could not go directly to their employer and complain about things which they did not like.

Good and Bad Sides of the Factories. The growth of the factory system had its good and its bad sides. It had these good ones:

The factories gave steady employment to a large number of people who preferred such work to labor on the farm.

Many things became common and cheap so that nearly everybody could have them. Clothing became cheap enough so that people were more comfortably dressed than ever before in the world's history. Homes were better furnished; for example, silver knives and forks became so cheap that they replaced the old-fashioned steel on the table, and there were more dishes in the pantry.

The chief bad features of the factory system were these:

The country used its resources too recklessly. For example, it cut down forests without starting new ones.

Women and even little children were employed at hard work for too long hours in factories.

Dangerous, whirling machinery was left unguarded, so that thousands of people were killed or injured every year.

Large companies tried to get control of all the factories that made such things as oil or sugar or matches or twine. Then the companies could charge whatever price they pleased, because nobody else would have the goods to sell.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. In 1790 the population of the United States was 3,929,214. How large was the army of factory workers in 1900 (see page 528)?
2. Explain why most of the factories in 1900 were found east of the Mississippi River and north of the Potomac and Ohio rivers.
3. Factories must have laborers, and raw materials such as coal, iron, oil, hides, and cotton. Tell where these came from in the eighteen-nineties.
4. Give a brief floor talk on the subject "Good and Bad Features of Combining Small Companies into Big Ones."
5. Make sure that you understand such terms as the following: monopoly, combination, capital, labor, employee, employer, company.
6. Study with care the railroad maps on pages 530 and 531. Then close the book and see whether you can describe to yourself the chief differences between the two maps.

3. HOW LABOR ORGANIZATIONS AROSE AND COMBINED

Combinations of Workmen. In the meantime the workmen were combining, just as the railroad, oil, and sugar companies had done. The order of the Knights of Labor was formed in 1869, — the year in which the railroad was finished to the Pacific coast. Its best-known leader was Terence V. Powderly, and at one time it had seven hundred thousand members. In 1881 the American Federation of Labor was started. Its president, Samuel Gompers, served from 1881 nearly all the time until his death in 1924. The Federation still continues, and in 1926 had over three million three hundred thousand members.

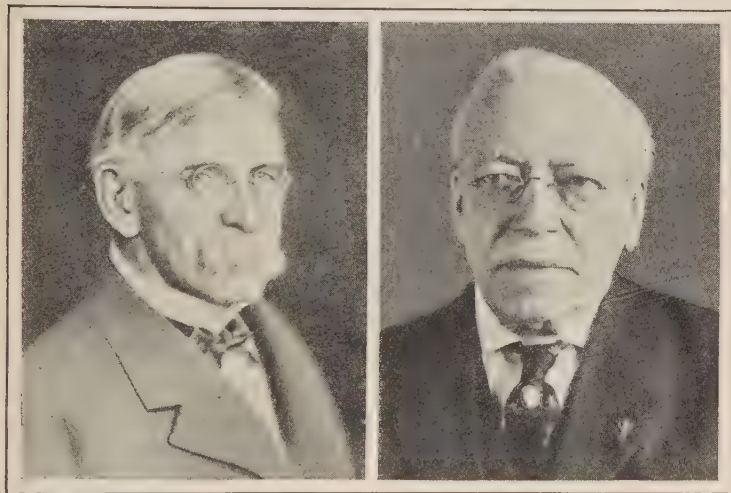
Newspapers were founded which described the needs of the laboring people. Groups of carpenters and bricklayers, employees in all kinds of factories, workers in metals, and miners of coal and iron were organized in every state in the country and brought into the American Federation of Labor. The things which the Knights of Labor and the American Federation demanded for their members were such as the following: a shorter working day (at that time the working day was from ten to twelve hours); more pay; care for the health and safety of workmen who were in dangerous trades or who had to work near dangerous machinery; laws preventing small children from working in factories.

Strikes. The next change in the history of American manufacturing came when the workmen made their demands and the employers refused to agree. At such times the workers frequently "struck"; that is, they walked out of the factories and refused to work until their demands were listened to.

Strikes had been known before the Civil War, but they did not occur in great numbers until after that time. During the late seventies they became common, and during the eighties there were hundreds of them every year. One or

two examples will show how bitter some of the contests between labor and "capital" came to be ("capital" is a word often used to mean the people who own and operate the factories).

In 1892 occurred the *Homestead strike*, in the Carnegie Steel Company at Homestead, near Pittsburgh. The men struck



TERENCE POWDERLY

SAMUEL GOMPERS

Early leaders in the modern American labor movement

because their pay had been reduced and because the company would have no dealings with the Iron and Steel Workers' Union. Fearing that their buildings might be damaged by the strikers, the company hired detectives and gave them rifles with which to fire on the workmen. A small war resulted between the detectives and the strikers. Men were killed, and property was destroyed. At last the state militia had to be called upon to stop the quarrel.

Another famous strike about this time was the *Pullman strike* of 1894. During 1893 and 1894 business was not prosperous; and the Pullman Palace Car Company at Pullman, a

town located near Chicago,¹ reduced the wages of its workers about 25 per cent. The workmen sent a committee to the company to ask that there should be no reduction in pay. The company refused the request and, moreover, discharged some members of the committee. Then the workmen struck. The railroad workers in and near Chicago took the side of the Pullman employees; railroad officers took the side of the Pullman Company. Then riots began. Cars were tipped over and burned, and trains were stopped. Most of this disorder, but not all of it, was caused by criminals and rowdies from Chicago who were not connected with either side of the strike. Trains carrying goods to states outside Illinois were interfered with, and mail cars were damaged. When the mails were delayed, the President of the United States decided that soldiers must be sent to prevent further trouble.

Results of the Strikes. As a result of these constant quarrels between employees and employers, the employers came to dislike the unions because of the riots that resulted from strikes; the unions came to dislike the companies because the companies got detectives and soldiers to fire on them; the rest of the people were greatly alarmed by what amounted practically to war between employers and employees; but the workmen were so frequently successful in getting what they struck for that strikes continued.

In a few states attempts were made to settle the labor troubles more peaceably than by detectives, soldiers, and riots. As early as 1866 Massachusetts passed a law forbidding factories to employ children under ten years of age. A few years later the law forbade the employment of women and young people under eighteen years of age for more than ten hours a day. Massachusetts and other states passed laws

¹ Pullman at that time was a village in the suburbs of Chicago. Since then Chicago has grown so fast that it has swallowed up Pullman and grown far out beyond it.

providing that employers must guard dangerous machinery, place fences around elevator openings, and have fire escapes in factory buildings. These laws were intended to bring about the changes which the labor unions wished without having strikes. Unfortunately, many of these laws were not enforced by the states, so that employers paid too little attention to them.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of the results of combining small companies into big ones. Which of these results caused the laborers to think of combining too?
2. Show why the employers of labor often refused to grant the demands of the Knights of Labor and the American Federation of Labor.
3. Speak for three or four minutes on the topic "Contests between Capital and Labor in the Eighteen-Nineties." Read "The Haymarket Tragedy," in *Our Own Recent Times (1877-1911)*, pp. 57-63, Vol. X of Great Epochs in American History.
4. In 1881 there were 451 strikes in the United States, in 1891 there were 1717, and in 1901 there were 2924. Show the increase by means of a bar diagram.
5. Make a brief report to the class on the importance of Terence V. Powderly and Samuel Gompers to the labor movement.

UNIT V. DISCOVERIES, INVENTIONS, AND IMPROVEMENTS AFFECTING EVERYDAY LIFE

Between 1865 and 1900 many discoveries, inventions, and improvements were made which touched the everyday life of the people. These were along the lines of transportation and communication, the use of oil, gas, electricity, and steel, and improvements in modern medicine. Because of all these the people of 1900 were living far more comfortable lives than were those of 1865.

1. WHAT CHANGES OCCURRED IN COMMUNICATION AND TRANSPORTATION BETWEEN 1865 AND 1900?

We remember how the telegraph was invented and put into operation in 1844. News could be carried *almost instantly* by the telegraph, much more quickly than by the fastest train. We remember, too, how the first railroad to the Pacific was finished in 1869. Passengers could now go in safety within a few days across a region where it took weeks for a wagon to cross, and where, only a few years before, Indians, wild animals, hunger, thirst, and cold were common dangers. From the point of view of safety and speed, *distances were fast shrinking* in the United States.

The telegraph cable across the Atlantic was successfully started in 1866. In later years still others were put down, and in no great time telegraph cables were extended all over the world. The world itself, like the United States, was beginning to grow smaller.

Talking through Wires. Alexander Graham Bell was not the only man who was trying in 1876 to discover a method of talking through wires. His, however, was the first successful telephone. On October 9, 1876, he talked with a friend over a wire extending from Boston to Cambridge, a distance of two miles (in 1915 he talked with the same friend over a line thirty-four hundred miles long extending from New York to San Francisco). Bell's first telephone was a crude affair that gave uncertain results, but it could be improved. Changes and improvements were made by many men. Telephones began to be used by the thousand and then by the hundred thousand. In 1900 there were nearly 1,000,000 of them; in 1923, about 14,000,000; in 1927, nearly 18,000,000. Several hundred thousand people are employed in the telephone business, and half a million invest money in it. Even more important are the direct effects of the telephone on American

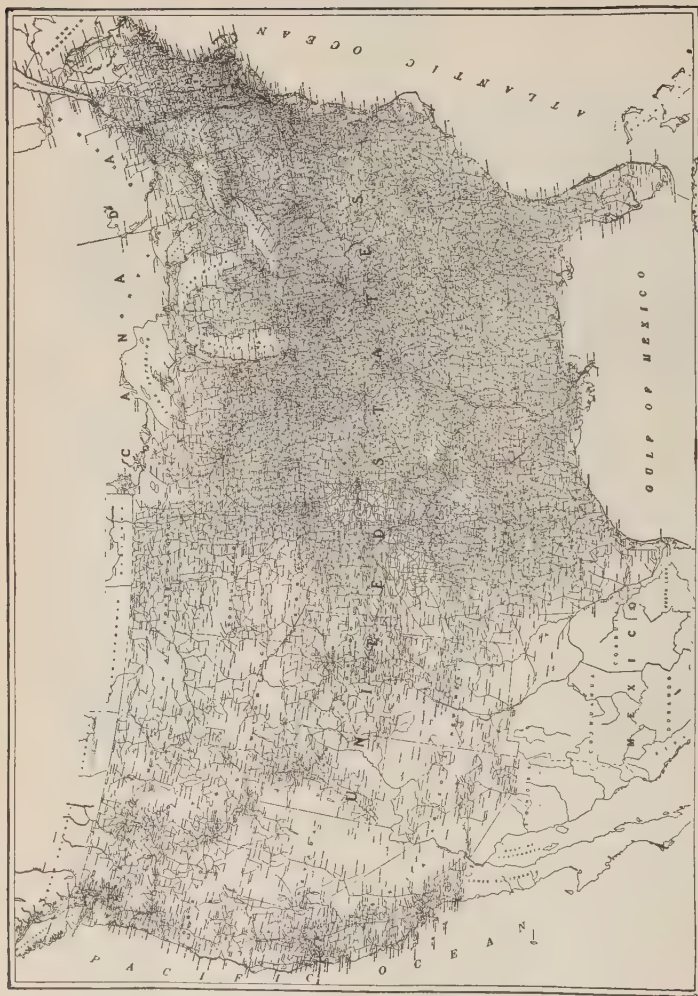
life. Modern business depends every minute on quick, accurate telephone service; in times of danger from fire the alarm can frequently be given by telephone in time to save much damage; when floods or earthquakes have occurred in one



THE EVOLUTION OF THE TELEPHONE, 1876-1927

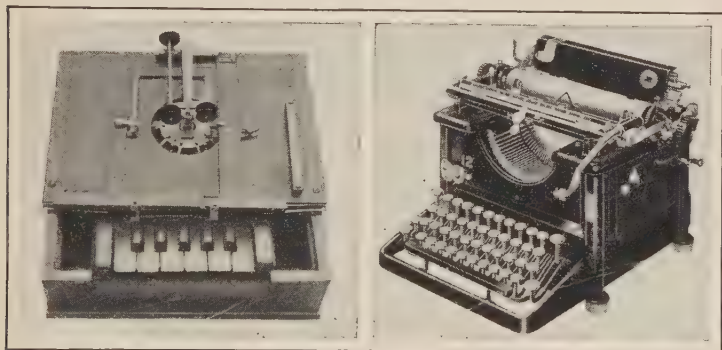
region or another, help is quickly called over the telephone; when the doctor is needed he can be called at a moment's notice; and people can talk with their neighbors at any time.

Science waves her hand, and silently
 A magic web is spun from sea to sea.
 The States crowd close together, as at night
 A family clusters around the fire-side's light.



TOLL LINES OF THE BELL TELEPHONE SYSTEM, 1926
Courtesy of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company

Invention of the Typewriter. Long before 1876, inventors in England and America had been trying to make a machine which would write. Finally one was made in the United States and shown at the Centennial Exhibition.¹ The typewriter had several advantages: a good operator could write much faster with it than he could with a pen; the writing could be read more easily; by using two sheets of paper



ONE OF THE FIRST TYPEWRITERS, INVENTED IN 1868, AND A
MODERN MACHINE

and placing a black, or "carbon," paper between them, two copies could be made as easily as one. These advantages were especially important in connection with business letters.

By the early eighties the United States government was using the machines in its offices; by 1900 many excellent machines were being made. Business men everywhere were taking them up; and since girls and young women were par-

¹ In 1876 there was held the Centennial Exhibition in Philadelphia. It was intended to celebrate the hundredth anniversary of the signing of the Declaration of Independence. As it was the first great exhibition of its kind in America, and as it came near the beginning of the development of science in the United States, it may be interesting to note a few of the thousands of things which were shown for the first time or were new to most people. There were air brakes, typewriters, a floor covering called linoleum, an apparatus for hatching chickens, and a telephone. Improved textile machinery was shown, some wonderful engines, fast printing-presses, and agricultural implements. Nearly ten million people visited the exhibition, and there were objects displayed from countries all over the world.

ticularly skillful in operating the machine, there arose a demand for trained "typists" in business offices. In this way several hundred thousand young women are now employed.

Building More Railroads. Within the United States the years 1865-1900 were the great years of railroad-building. More lines were built across the plains; thousands of miles of lines were laid in the South; the Mississippi Valley was covered with them; everywhere the surveyor and the track-layer were to be seen making a way for the locomotive and the freight car. The tracks laid between 1880 and 1900, even, would have gone four times around the world. We remember that before the Civil War a great many people — perhaps even most people — had never seen a railroad train. That condition did not last long after the years of rapid construction began.

This was the time, too, when the primitive railroad of the days before the war was turned into the modern road. Air brakes were invented which stopped trains quickly and smoothly, without hurling passengers out of their seats as the old brakes used to do. Coal replaced wood for fuel. Heavy steel rails were laid instead of the earlier iron and the still earlier plank with a strip of iron on top. Heavier cars and heavier locomotives could then be used. Pullman cars were improved. Safety appliances were put on trains in order to reduce the great number of accidents that were occurring. Bridges were built and stations were erected. In short, before 1900 the American railway train had become in speed and comfort practically the train which we know today.

The Street Railway. If we had been in one of the large American cities before 1885 we should have smiled at the street-railway system. The cars were tiny, cold in winter and stuffy in summer, and drawn by horses. There had been such a system in New York as early as 1831, and in Boston, Philadelphia, and perhaps other cities before the Civil War.

In 1876 an elevated railroad was built through some of the streets of New York, and trains drawn by small locomotives were run on it. In the eighteen-seventies some people in Germany began trying out an electric street car. Scientists in America took up the idea. During the years after 1885 many cities did away with all their horse cars and began using trolley cars entirely. People used them to go down town to the store, the office, and the factory. Through their extension out into the region around the cities, the suburbs of many a town were started on a period of rapid growth.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Speak for three or four minutes on the subject "How the World grew Smaller between 1865 and 1900."

2. Show the effect of Bell's telephone on modern life. Read "The Story of the Telephone," in *America First*, by L. B. Evans, pp. 401 ff.; also "The Marvelous History of the Telephone," in *Real Stories from Our History*, by J. T. Faris, chap. xliii.

3. Show by means of a bar diagram the increase in the number of telephones between 1900 and 1927. Use the data given in the text.

4. "New Things to be seen at the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia in 1876." Speak for two or three minutes on this subject.

5. Show how the invention of the typewriter affected modern business; also point out the value of a carbon copy of a letter to a business man.

6. The railroad mileage in the United States was 30,626 miles in 1860; 52,922 miles in 1870; 93,267 miles in 1880; 167,191 miles in 1890; and 198,964 miles in 1900. Make a bar diagram to show these increases.

7. Read "The Railroads," in *The Pathbreakers from River to Ocean*, by Grace R. Hebard, chap. ix; "A Transcontinental Railroad," in *The Expansion of the American People*, by E. E. Sparks, chap. xxx; and *Real Stories from Our History*, by J. T. Faris, chaps. xl, xli (on railroad contrivances and the first transcontinental railroad).

2. HOW GAS, OIL, AND STEEL WERE DISCOVERED AND PUT TO USE

How Houses were Lighted in 1865-1900. In earlier days, as we remember, houses had been lighted by candles. They gave only a small light, which flickered unpleasantly, requiring constant attention.



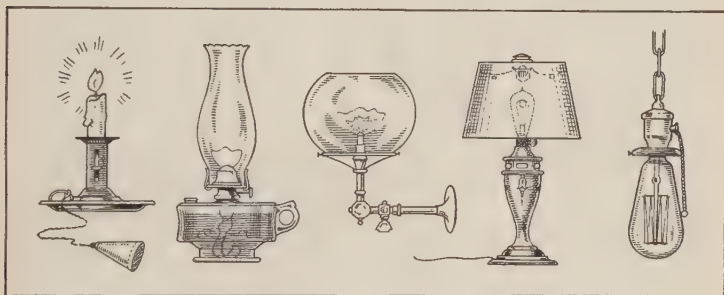
AN EARLY OIL WELL

For a long time people had known of the presence of oil in the ground in various countries, but nobody knew exactly how to use it. In 1859 great quantities were found by E. L. Drake in western Pennsylvania. The region around, including portions of Ohio and West Virginia, was full of it. Then there was a rush of men to the oil fields. As the oil came from the ground it was too

impure to use, but ways were discovered of purifying it and thus making a liquid, called kerosene, which could be burned in lamps. Any number of different kinds of lamps were invented in which the kerosene could be used. In that first year (1859) two thousand barrels of oil were taken from the ground; in 1900 nearly sixty-four million barrels were taken. Most of this oil was used for lighting. Candles disappeared. Houses were more pleasant in the evening. Flickering was done away with by means of glass chimneys which surrounded the lighted lamp wick.

In the same region where oil was discovered there was found a gas in the ground which would burn. This was carried into houses through pipes and used for lighting. In cities in other parts of the country, gas-making plants had already been built in which an illuminating gas was made from coal. This gas was also carried in pipes and was used (and still is) for lighting and for cooking.¹

Electric Lights. At the time when the oil lamp was being improved a number of scientists were attempting to make a lamp that would be fed by electricity. Thomas A. Edison, an



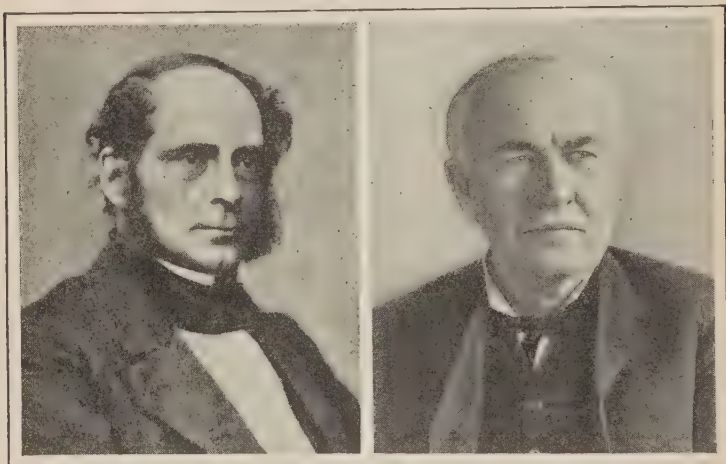
THE EVOLUTION OF THE LAMP

American, was one of them. Edison made a glass bulb, put a loop of platinum wire in it, pumped all the air out, and sealed up the tube air-tight. Then he ran an electric current through the wire, and it gave a bright, steady light. The trouble with the lamp, however, was that it cost too much, for platinum wire is very valuable. Finally Edison discovered that he could use a fine thread of bamboo instead of the wire. As bamboo could be obtained at no great cost he was able to make lamps very cheaply. In 1879 San Francisco began lighting its streets at night by means of electric lamps in-

¹ In those days matches were not so cheap as they are now. As a substitute for them many people used to roll up small pieces of newspaper and keep a jar or tumbler full of them near the lamp. Such a roll, which was known as a "spill," could be lighted by touching one end to the kitchen fire.

vented by Charles F. Brush. In 1882 New York began using Edison's lamps. In a short time a great industry grew up which required thousands of workers; for cities, towns, and private houses began demanding the new kind of light.

Turning Iron into Steel. The use of iron has been common for many centuries. But iron is not strong enough for a



HENRY BESSEMER, THE ENGLISH DISCOVERER OF IMPROVED METHODS OF MAKING STEEL, AND THOMAS A. EDISON, INVENTOR OF THE ELECTRIC LIGHT

Important figures in the field of modern invention

great many things. Iron rails are not strong enough for heavy railroad trains, and iron is not strong enough for bridges over which heavy loads will pass. For these reasons American life was greatly affected when two things occurred :

Just before the Civil War two men discovered a means of turning iron into steel quickly and cheaply. The men were Henry Bessemer in England and William Kelley in the United States.¹

¹ Iron is turned into steel by melting it and putting in a few substances, chiefly carbon. Carbon is the black material which is seen on the end of a partly burned match or on the tip of a lamp wick.

Just before the Civil War and just after it quantities of iron ore were discovered near Lake Superior. They were, on the whole, the most valuable iron mines that have ever been discovered.

Here, then, were the two things needed to make an "age of steel": plenty of iron close by and a way of turning the iron into steel quickly and cheaply. The ore was dug from the ground and was carried to such manufacturing cities as Chicago, Cleveland, and Pittsburgh. Steel rails were turned out with which the railroad tracks of the country were laid. Steel beams were made which were put into "skyscrapers" and bridges and school buildings. Steel wire was drawn which made possible telegraph lines all over the country. In 1900 millions of tons of steel were being made every year. Hundreds of thousands of people were earning their living by working in the factories or offices of the steel companies. Unheard-of fortunes had been made in the steel business; in fact, the change was so rapid and so important that we sometimes speak of this time as the "age of steel."

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Using the data given below, make a bar diagram which will show the increase in the production of petroleum in the United States during the period between 1860 and 1900.

DATE	GALLONS PRODUCED IN ROUND NUMBERS
1860	21,000,000
1870	220,000,000
1880	1,104,000,000
1890	1,924,000,000
1900	2,672,000,000

2. Give a brief floor talk on the topic "Lighting Houses and Stores — Past and Present." Read about Edison's electric-light invention in *Our Own Recent Times (1877-1911)*, pp. 10-18, Vol. X of *Great Epochs in American History*.

3. Using the data below, make a bar diagram to show the increase in the production of steel between 1870 and 1900.

YEAR	TONS PRODUCED
1870	68,000
1880	1,247,000
1890	4,277,000
1900	10,188,000

4. Explain what is meant by age of steel, spills, Edison's lamps.

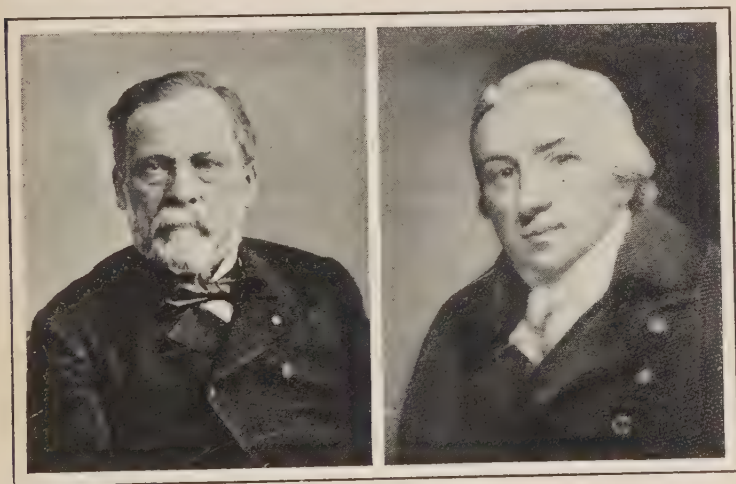
3. WHAT WERE THE IMPROVEMENTS IN MODERN MEDICINE?

Epidemics and how they are Prevented. If we had lived seventy-five years ago we should have been in danger from the great "epidemics" that used to sweep over all countries. When a disease such as smallpox spread among a great many people, there was said to be an "epidemic."¹ Sometimes diseases of this sort killed off a large proportion of the people of a city or town. Before the Civil War, epidemics were of rather common occurrence; by 1900 they were unusual. What happened in the meantime to do away with such a deadly enemy? One means of preventing epidemics is the "quarantine." For example, immigrants who have diseases are prevented from entering the United States. Since 1891 medical officers have examined every immigrant, looking particularly for certain diseases. It is considered unlikely that any of these diseases will ever again get a foothold in this country.

The second method of preventing epidemics was discovered by Louis Pasteur, a Frenchman. Pasteur said that many diseases were caused by small organisms called germs. If the germs were killed or not allowed to enter the body, then the disease would stop. It was found, for example, that typhoid fever was caused by drinking impure water or milk. If the water or milk were boiled so as to kill the germs, or if only

¹ The smallpox was greatly dreaded in early America. Entire Indian tribes seem to have been killed off by it. George Washington had it when he was a young man.

pure water and milk were drunk, then epidemics of typhoid would stop. Hence cities had their reservoirs examined to see that the water was kept pure, and farmers were compelled by law to sell only pure milk. It was found that yellow-fever germs were carried by a certain species of mosquito. Hence where yellow fever was common, great efforts were



LOUIS PASTEUR, THE DISCOVERER OF THE GERM THEORY, AND EDWARD JENNER, AN ENGLISH PHYSICIAN WHO DISCOVERED VACCINATION

Pioneers in the modern health movement

made to kill off the mosquitoes. So successful was the attempt that yellow fever has been practically stamped out.

The third method of preventing epidemics is by vaccinating people. Vaccination began with an English doctor named Edward Jenner, who claimed that he could prevent smallpox in that way. It was a long time before many people were convinced that Jenner was right; but when they were convinced, some nations passed laws compelling everybody to be vaccinated. In 1918 the United States had an army of four million men, but less than a dozen of them died of smallpox.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Show why smallpox was so greatly dreaded in early America among the Indians and the whites.
2. Show the importance of Pasteur's discovery to our modern everyday life.
3. Give a brief floor talk on the topic "Methods of Preventing Epidemics."
4. Can you find out about other diseases to which the ideas of Edward Jenner are now applied?

UNIT VI. EDUCATIONAL, CULTURAL, AND SOCIAL CHANGES, 1865-1900

The changes that occurred between 1865 and 1900 in education, literature, art, and music were tremendous.

The American who was growing up during those years had only himself to blame if he did not get at least a little education. The schools and colleges were being improved for him; newspapers and books were becoming better and more common; public libraries were being opened everywhere.

1. WHAT CHANGES OCCURRED IN SCHOOLS?

The Elementary School. After the close of the Civil War many people felt that the elementary schools ought to be greatly improved. There were several reasons for this:

It had been the practice to improve the schools from the earliest colonial times.

The country was becoming wealthier and could afford to spend more money on its schools.

The United States was lagging behind the leading European countries in education.

The members of the labor unions demanded better education for their children.

Streams of immigrants were coming into the country. Most of them were illiterate; that is to say, they could neither read nor write. People felt that it was dangerous to allow so many illiterates to become citizens and help govern the country.

When the boys and girls who had been in school before 1860 grew up to be men and women, they noticed a great change in the schools which their children attended. The buildings were larger and were better heated and ventilated. Not so many pupils were crowded into one room. In more and more places each year the old "district school" was given up — the school where pupils of all ages, from the beginners to the oldest, studied and recited in one room to one teacher. The teachers too were better after 1865, because normal schools were becoming common, where teachers were trained for their work. The school year was made longer, although it doubtless seemed to the pupil long enough already. Books were improved by being made more interesting, and in many states the books were provided for the pupil without his having to pay for them. The purpose of all these changes was to give the largest possible number of pupils the best possible education.

New studies were gradually introduced here and there. Woodworking became common in the larger cities; sewing, cooking, and other domestic sciences were introduced. More and more pupils came to the schools. In particular, more girls came. In earlier times girls had very seldom been given the advantages of education. In fact, a man who finished his schooling in 1801 said that he had seen only three girls in school in his whole life, and they went to school only in the afternoon to learn how to write. This condition changed gradually before the Civil War, and faster afterwards; in fact, by 1900 more than half the pupils in the elementary schools were girls.

The High Schools. The schools which we now call high schools existed before the Civil War, but there were not many of them. After 1865, however, parents and children more and more urgently demanded education beyond the elementary school. During the seventies, eighties, and nineties, cities all over the country were building high schools. Where a few



THE GEORGE WASHINGTON HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK

A recent type of city school

hundred boys and girls went to them before, many thousands went by 1900. Business offices were calling for educated young men and women; business schools were being started here and there. Courses in commercial arithmetic, stenography, and bookkeeping were added to the high-school courses. The use of the typewriter in business was increasing so fast that the high schools in some places offered courses in typewriting.

The Colleges. There were three important changes that affected the colleges after 1865:

Many states established colleges to teach agriculture and such scientific subjects as bridge-building, road-building, the uses of electricity and machinery, the construction of buildings, and so on. The United States government contributed land to the states for this purpose.

Girls began to go to college, just as boys had always done. Colleges for women were established: Vassar in 1861, Smith in 1871, Wellesley in 1875, and Bryn Mawr in 1880. Men's colleges, such as Harvard and Columbia, started courses for women, and most of the Western universities admitted men and women alike.

As a result of the opening of new schools and colleges and the establishment of new courses, and as a result of the greater amount of wealth in the country, the increased confidence in the value of education, and laws compelling children to go to school, pupils poured into the schools as never before in American history. By 1900 nearly sixteen million pupils were enrolled in the elementary schools.¹

Schools in the South. The end of the Civil War found the educational system of the South in wretched condition. The people were too poor to spend money on schools. The South was more thinly settled than the North, so that the pupils lived longer distances from the school buildings. The roads, moreover, were in bad condition. There were a great many poor negroes to be looked out for. Illiteracy grew fast. So it came about that the South had a hard struggle from 1865 to 1900 to get its schools started.

Much help was obtained from the North. In 1867 George Peabody gave \$2,000,000 to help Southern education, and some years afterwards John F. Slater and Daniel Hand gave large amounts for the same purpose. The Southern states

¹ Including elementary, high-school, college, and other students there were over 17,500,000 in all. This was more than the entire population of the United States when Van Buren was president.

themselves raised money. Schools were established for negro children, in which there were nearly three million pupils in 1900. Trade schools were started for the education of the negro in carpentry, masonry, agriculture, and similar work.

By 1900 the South was well on its feet again. There was more money spent on education. People were demanding better schools for their children. Better schoolhouses were built. More pupils went to school more days in the year, and illiteracy began to grow less.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Explain the changes that occurred in elementary education between 1865 and 1900.

2. Compare education in the United States in the early nineties with education in the colonies in 1763 with respect to kinds of schools, studies, buildings, teachers, length of school term, books, and education for girls.

3. Show the handicaps to education in the South just after 1865. Show also how many of these were overcome by 1900.

4. Read "A Yankee Teacher in the South," in *The Progress of a United People*, edited by C. L. Barstow, pp. 9-15. Here you will find an excellent account of what schools were like in Charleston, South Carolina, in the late sixties.

2. HOW NEWSPAPERS, BOOKS, AND LIBRARIES INCREASED

Newspapers. There were many good newspapers in the United States before the Civil War, although a newspaper man of today would consider them rather primitive. When the Civil War came on, the largest newspapers sent men to the scene of the fighting to gather the news. Everybody wanted to know what was going on. The papers grew larger. In general, the same changes have continued. The differences between a newspaper in 1865 and one in 1900 were these:

the newspaper of 1900 had more pages, more advertisements, more news, and a greater circulation.

Many things have aided the newspaper man in turning out a better paper :

There are the *press associations*, for example, which are companies organized by many of the newspapers of the country. The associations do nothing but collect news all



MODERN PRINTING-PRESSES AT THE ATHENAEUM PRESS

over the world and send it to the newspapers. Hence you may read in your paper today about something that happened in China yesterday. Very likely the article may be headed "By the Associated Press," which means that the news was gathered and sent to your newspaper by the Associated Press.

Another aid to the modern newspaper is the *improved printing-press*. Between 1865 and 1900 the press was greatly improved in the convenience and speed with which it printed papers.

The *telegraph* is the third thing which has greatly improved the modern newspaper. When Lincoln was nomi-

nated president at a great meeting in Chicago in 1860, only one telegraph operator was needed. He was able to supply all the news that the papers asked for. But in 1892, when another president was being nominated, a hundred telegraph operators were required.

Books, Magazines, and Libraries. Nobody can tell precisely how great is the influence of the newspapers, magazines, and books which we read. All that can be said is that it is very great.

The growth of the book and magazine trade in the United States from 1865 to 1900 kept up with the growth of the newspaper. Six thousand three hundred and fifty-six different new books were published in the country in 1900, and more than twenty thousand different newspapers and magazines. There had been cartoons and pictures, of course, in magazines and newspapers before this time, but they now became more common and more artistically made.

The libraries before 1865 were mainly in the colleges and in the homes of wealthy men. There were a few, however, which were open to the public. To be sure, a few states had passed laws *allowing* the towns to raise money for public libraries before the Civil War. Nevertheless, most progress was made after 1865. Beginning in 1893, some states passed laws *compelling* the towns to raise money to support libraries. In the meanwhile wealthy men were giving large sums of money to the public libraries. It was a poor year in the eighteen-nineties when the American libraries did not receive gifts of more than a million dollars. The "open shelf" system was started, where the public could go in and look the books over. Branches were established in the large cities, where people could get books without going a long distance to the main library.

The Lyceum and the Chautauqua. The lyceum was a society which was first organized in Massachusetts about 1826, long

before the days of public libraries. The purposes of the society were to improve the public schools, to organize libraries and museums, and to provide lectures, debates, and reading groups for grown-ups. The idea spread fast, and before 1860 there were lyceums all over the country. After the Civil War the lyceum paid less attention to debates and more



A SCENE IN A MODERN PUBLIC LIBRARY

to lectures. The best lecturers in the country were kept busy for several years speaking to lyceums everywhere. Interest gradually dwindled, however, and the lyceum as an educational organization disappeared.

The Chautauqua movement was started about the time the lyceum died out — in the eighteen-seventies. Its purpose was to get people all over the United States to read books and follow courses of study, especially people who were not in schools. This plan spread rapidly also, and many thousands of students were enrolled.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. There were 4051 newspapers and periodicals in the United States in 1860; 5871 in 1870; 9723 in 1880; 16,948 in 1890; and 20,806 in 1900. Show the increase by means of a bar diagram.

2. Give a brief floor talk on the subject "How the Newspapers Changed between 1860 and 1900."

3. Explain the beginning of the modern public library.

4. Show what is left in our present-day life of the lyceum and the Chautauqua.

5. The number of new books published in the United States was 4559 in 1890; 4665 in 1891; 4862 in 1892; 5134 in 1893; 4484 in 1894; 5469 in 1895; 5703 in 1896; 4928 in 1897; 4886 in 1898; 5321 in 1899; and 6356 in 1900. Make a bar diagram to illustrate the changes from year to year.

3. WHAT CHANGES OCCURRED IN LITERATURE, ART, AND MUSIC?

Literature. After 1865 there was enough work and more than enough to take up the energy and the interest of the American people. There was the recovery from the Civil War, there was the development of the West; and there were also such tasks as starting and developing the great factories, laying the railroads, building the bridges, and opening the mines. A nation engaged in such hard work had too little time and energy to spend in writing and reading books, painting pictures, and learning to write and enjoy music. Although in such things the United States could not equal Europe, yet a great deal of progress was made.

Many stories were written, for instance, about the peculiarities of the people in the various parts of America. Bret Harte wrote about the miners, the gamblers, and the stage-drivers of the Far West. Edward Eggleston told stories of frontier life in Indiana; his *Hoosier Schoolmaster* deals particularly with school life. There were a great many interesting

stories of the South, such as those by Thomas Nelson Page, Joel Chandler Harris, and F. Hopkinson Smith. Harris gave us "Uncle Remus" and "Brer Rabbit" and "Brer Fox," whom everybody ought to know. James Lane Allen wrote about Kentucky. New England was the scene of some of the best stories of William Dean Howells. Samuel L. Clemens (generally known as Mark Twain) wrote accounts of the scrapes that boys got into in the Mississippi Valley, in such comical and interesting stories as *Huckleberry Finn* and *Tom Sawyer*. Any really live boy or girl of Mark Twain's boyhood who lived near the Mississippi River took joy in watching the steamboats going up and down the great stream. As Twain describes it, a cloud of dark smoke appears above a distant bend in the river.

Instantly a negro drayman, famous for his quick eye and prodigious voice, lifts up the cry, "S-t-e-a-m-boat a-comin' !" and the scene changes! The town drunkard stirs, the clerks wake up, a furious clatter of drays follows, every house and store pours out a human contribution, and all in a twinkling the dead town is alive and moving. Drays, carts, men, boys, all go hurrying to a common center, the wharf. Assembled there, the people fasten their eyes upon the coming boat as upon a wonder they are seeing for the first time. . . . The furnace doors are open and the fires glaring bravely; the upper decks are black with passengers; the captain stands by the big bell, calm, imposing, the envy of all; great volumes of the blackest smoke are rolling and tumbling out of the chimneys — a husbanded grandeur created with a bit of pitch-pine just before arriving at a town; the crew are grouped on the forecastle; the broad stage is run far out over the port bow, and an envied deck-hand stands picturesquely on the end of it with a coil of rope in his hand; the pent steam is screaming through the gauge-cocks; the captain lifts his hand, a bell rings, the wheels stop; then they turn back, churning the water to foam, and the steamer is at rest.

Some of the stories for boys and girls which were written between 1865 and 1900 were read in every nook and cranny of

the country. Besides *Uncle Remus*, there were *Little Women*, by Louisa M. Alcott; *Little Lord Fauntleroy*, by Frances Hodgson Burnett; and the poems of Eugene Field and James Whitcomb Riley. Big folks, as well as smaller folks, loved Riley's "Little Orphant Annie":

Little Orphant Annie's come to our house to stay,
An' wash the cups an' saucers up, an' brush the crumbs away,
An' shoo the chickens off the porch, an' dust the hearth, an' sweep,
An' make the fire, an' bake the bread, an' earn her board-an'-keep;
An' all us other childern, when the supper things is done,
We set around the kitchen fire an' has the mostest fun
A list'nin to the witch-tales 'at Annie tells about,
An' the Gobble-uns' at gits you
Ef you
Don't
Watch
Out!

The Development of Artistic Life in America. After 1865 more Americans attained distinction as artists than ever before in our history. Just why they should develop at this particular time can be partly but not fully explained. Some of them were sons of immigrants; some were sons of American ministers, farmers, harness-makers, and grocers. They were born in New England, in the Middle West, and even in the mountain states. Some had artistic training in their younger days, and some did not. Most of them, however, got much of their training in sculpture or music or painting in the schools of Europe.

Before 1876 there was little interest in good pictures in America. But in that year there occurred the Centennial Exhibition in Philadelphia. Among the objects shown there were many artistic things from Europe. The few Americans who were interested in such things were inspired to further study, to go abroad, and to learn from the great artists of

earlier times. There then began a considerable development of artistic life in America.¹

Painters, Sculptors, and Architects. Several American painters, for example, achieved no small renown. George Inness painted outdoor scenes, such as the Berkshire Hills in Massachusetts. James A. M. Whistler was an original and clever artist whose picture of his mother is known everywhere. Historical scenes and literary scenes were pictured by Edwin A. Abbey and John La Farge, with great care for the accuracy of everything that they painted (notice again the picture of the American army at Valley Forge on page 197).² Other men, too many of them to name, drew pictures of famous people, of Indians, of animals, and all sorts of things.

The best statuary in America today was done by the sculptors of this time. The statue of Lincoln which so many people go to see in Chicago was made by Augustus Saint-Gaudens. The "Minute Man," commemorating the battle at Concord in 1775, was the work of Daniel C. French. Frederick W. MacMonnies made many busts and statues, particularly a group for an exhibition in Chicago in 1893.³ Other men made artistic things of clay and bronze which are to be found in every state in the Union.

In 1893 there was held an exposition, or "world's fair," at Chicago to celebrate the four-hundredth anniversary of the landing of Columbus.⁴ When the plans came to be made, it was found that American architects, painters, and sculptors would have an opportunity to make the exposition buildings the most beautiful seen in the United States up to that time.

¹ Drawing as part of the work in the public school began in Boston in 1870.

² Inness was born in New York in 1825 and died in 1894; Whistler was born in Massachusetts in 1834 and died in 1903; Abbey was born in Pennsylvania in 1852 and died in 1911; La Farge was born in New York in 1835 and died in 1910.

³ Saint-Gaudens was born in Ireland in 1848, came to the United States when he was a child, and died in 1907; French was born in New Hampshire in 1850; MacMonnies was born in Brooklyn in 1863.

⁴ The exposition was planned for 1892, but had to be delayed for a year.

The grounds were laid out by Frederick Law Olmsted; architects like Daniel H. Burnham, Charles McKim, and Charles B. Atwood planned the buildings; MacMonnies and other sculptors planned the statuary.¹ Other artists all over the country gave time and labor to drawing pictures and thinking out plans for the buildings, lakes, walks, canals, pictures, statues, and all sorts of decorations.

Music and Musicians. During colonial times America made even less progress in music than in other artistic things. Most people were too poor, and too busy making the soil give them a living, to spend much time on music. Moreover, the early Puritans of New England looked on musical instruments as almost wicked, if not fully so. But here, again, the foreign influence was strong, as it was in connection with painting and sculpture. The German immigrants brought their love of music with them, and so did many others. In Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, for example, there were Moravians who were very skillful. Benjamin Franklin wrote to his wife as early as 1756 that he had heard "very fine music" there on the organ, violin, and other instruments.

Even up to the Civil War little progress was made in music. It is true that there were many orchestras which lived for a short time, many bands of doubtful quality here and there, and singing societies that got together for a few years and then lost interest. Even in the large cities skillful musicians could not earn a living by music. Most of the attempts to start orchestras ended in failure, however, except in the case of the New York Philharmonic Orchestra. This was founded in 1842 and is still successful. The Boston Symphony Orchestra, founded in 1881, was even more famous. These two early orchestras set a standard for others. City after city fi-

¹ Olmsted was born in Connecticut in 1822 and died in 1903; Burnham was born in New York in 1846 and died in 1912; McKim was born in Pennsylvania in 1847 and died in 1909; Atwood was born in Massachusetts in 1849 and died in 1895.

nally started similar enterprises, and now they are common in the larger cities and in schools and colleges.¹

Very few Americans have written music which has been as successful as that written by Europeans. The first American to gain a wide reputation was Professor John K. Paine of Harvard University. Edward A. MacDowell was another. Like Paine, he was professor of music at a university (Columbia). Hardly less well known were George W. Chadwick, head of the New England Conservatory of Music, and Horatio Parker, professor of music at Yale University.²

A few American folk songs have been unusually popular. This is particularly true of some songs written by Stephen C. Foster just before and during the Civil War. Foster got his inspiration from the Southern negroes and wrote "Swanee River," "Massa's in the Cold, Cold Ground," and other popular songs. "Dixie," written by Dan Emmett just before the war, became extremely popular and has remained so. Many negro melodies, such as "Swing Low, Sweet Chariot," have been widely imitated.

The plan on which the American common school was founded was the idea that if education is good for *anybody*, it is good for *everybody*. The same idea was extended to education in music. Far back, in 1837, a man named Lowell Mason had persuaded the school board in Boston to try teaching music in a few public schools. The experiment was

¹ One of the most famous conductors of orchestras in the early days was Theodore Thomas, who was born in Germany in 1835 and died in Chicago in 1905. Thomas tells this story about his early experiences. In order to get people to come out to hear good music, he had to perform surprising things, or "stunts." Once at an outdoor concert he sent a player behind the audience into the bushes. At a certain point the player was to blow on a brass instrument. Unhappily a policeman saw the player and thought he was trying to disturb the concert. Thereupon the officer started to arrest the musician. The musician ran out of the bushes and up the aisle toward the stage, blowing his notes as he ran, and the policeman ran after him as fast as he could go!

² Paine was born in Maine in 1839 and died in 1906; MacDowell was born in New York in 1861 and died in 1908; Chadwick was born in Massachusetts in 1854; Parker was born in Massachusetts in 1863.

successful. The plan spread. By 1885 music was taught in many schools. The colleges had taken it up. Music schools appeared everywhere. It was apparent that even if the United States got most of its composers and players from abroad, the people were determined that everybody should have a chance to understand music a little at least.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of the authors mentioned in the paragraph on literature. Tell what each wrote about.
2. Explain why a new country is slow in producing great artists.
3. Make a list of the painters, sculptors, and architects mentioned in the paragraph on the development of artistic life in America. Mention a work of each.
4. Show why music and musicians had such a hard time in America up to the Civil War.
5. Make a list of the musicians and folk-song writers mentioned above. Tell of the work each did.

4. WHAT RIGHTS HAD WOMEN ACQUIRED BY 1900?

Changes in the Rights of Women. We remember that before the Civil War many women complained that the laws of the various states were unfair. People were too much concerned about slavery and about the war to pay attention to such subjects during the fifties and sixties, and for some years afterwards not much change was made. During the nineties, however, a great many improvements were brought about. As each state made its own changes and as no two states acted exactly alike, it is impossible to mention everything that was done. In general, these changes related to such things as property rights, the care of children, occupations, education, and voting.

In earlier days a married woman could not control her own property. Her husband could manage it, collect any rents or

interest, and spend the money as he chose. All he had to do was to give her such food, clothing, and shelter as he thought proper. By 1900 this condition was changed in most states, but not in all. The laws were so modified that the wife could own and control her own property.

Another peculiar arrangement was that about the care of children. It had been the law that the father could take charge of the children, decide what education they should have, take any money they earned, and manage any property they might have. All this could be done without even talking with the mother about it. Very little change was made in these laws even as late as 1900. In a few states, however, the father and mother had equal control over the children.

Other changes of great importance related to occupations, education, and voting. Many states used to have laws forbidding women to become physicians, lawyers, or ministers. These laws were rapidly changed during the nineties. Women began to enter these professions and many other lines of work. Furthermore, colleges and universities were opened to women after 1865. Gradually law schools and schools of medicine, dentistry, and science were opened to them.

The Humanitarians. It is not easy to tell in a few words exactly what is meant by a *humanitarian*. But between 1865 and 1900 such men and women as the following were doing important things. By knowing what they did, anybody can make up his own definition.

Henry Ward Beecher was a preacher in Brooklyn for nearly forty years. He preached about slavery, temperance, clean politics, and all manner of things. People came from great distances to hear him, and his printed sermons were read all over the country. Another preacher whose words were listened to and read widely was Phillips Brooks, of Boston. These men and others like them took a great interest in improving the condition of the poor and unfortunate.

Clara Barton became known as an extraordinary nurse during the Civil War. She relieved the sick and wounded in a war between France and Germany in 1870. She became president of the American Red Cross when it was started in



CLARA BARTON

FRANCES E. WILLARD

Leaders in relief work since the Civil War

1881. When floods occurred, when earthquakes came, or when other misfortunes happened, it was Clara Barton more than anybody else who organized relief.

The great cities with their colonies of poor immigrants gave another chance for relief work. Many poor people lived in crowded houses, not knowing how to get any help in times of sickness or trouble. Beginning in 1887 some humanitarians established what were called settlement houses; that is, they hired houses in the poorer parts of some of the big cities, such as Boston, New York, and Chicago, and went there to live. They sent nurses about to the sick, held kindergarten classes for the small children, started clubs and gymnasiums for the boys and girls, and provided entertainments for the men and

women. Relieving the misfortunes of the poor, the sick, or people who had met with accidents — such was the work of the humanitarian.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Show the changes that had occurred before 1900 in the rights of women with respect to property, the care of children, occupations, education.

2. Find out what the situation is at the present time in your own state with respect to all the rights listed above.

3. After reading the paragraphs on "The Humanitarians," tell what a humanitarian is. Name three humanitarians who are now living.

4. Make a list of the humanitarians mentioned above and describe the work they did.

UNIT VII. SIGNIFICANT POLITICAL QUESTIONS AND GENERAL UNREST, 1876-1896

We now know something about the many new things which were changing America so rapidly after the Civil War. What happened in the field of politics while all these changes were occurring? Who were the presidents? What did they do? What problems did they have to meet?

1. WHAT WERE THE MAIN POLITICAL QUESTIONS BETWEEN 1876 AND 1896?

The Four Main Questions. For twenty years after 1876 four questions were most frequently before the American political parties. Other questions came up now and then, as we shall see, but these came up nearly all the time.

When the United States had extra money in its treasury, how should the money be spent?

When presidents appointed government officials, whom should they appoint? Should they appoint their own *friends*? Or should they try to find the *best* person for the office, regard-

less of who he was? This is called the civil-service question, because these officials were in the *service* of the government and in the *civil* service (that is, the service which was not naval or military).

When goods were imported into the United States from abroad, should a high tariff be levied on them or a low one?

Should the government attempt to control the railroads and other big corporations? Should it make them look out for the welfare of their employees? Should it have anything to say about what the railroads should charge on their trains? Or should the government take its hands off and let the corporations do as they pleased?

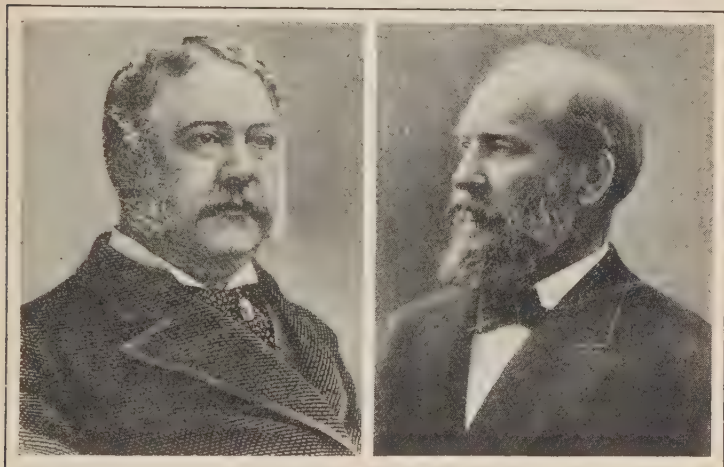
Rutherford B. Hayes, 1877-1881. The first question which President Hayes had to settle happened not to be one of the big four: it concerned the South. In two of the Southern states there were soldiers who had been there since the war. Hayes thought it was time that the troops came out of the South and let the Southern states attend to their own affairs. Accordingly he ordered the troops out.

Hayes's Secretary of the Treasury was an able man, John Sherman of Ohio. Sherman used as much money as he could for reducing the huge debt which had been piled up during the war. He also found that people were suspicious of the value of paper money. For example, a storekeeper would sell more goods for five dollars in gold than he would for five dollars in paper money. Hence Sherman waited until he had a great deal of gold in the Treasury; then he offered to let anybody come and exchange paper for gold. When it was seen that the government could give gold for paper, everybody was ready to take the paper, because it was more convenient to handle. Storekeepers then sold as much for five dollars in paper as they did for five dollars in gold.¹

¹ Making paper interchangeable with gold is called specie payment. Specie payments were resumed by Sherman (under an act of Congress) on January 2, 1879.

Hayes was very careful to appoint good men as government officers. Instead of appointing only his friends and relatives, he tried to get the best men. His political friends did not like this, because they had expected that he would give them positions.

Garfield and Arthur, 1881-1885.¹ At the end of Hayes's term James A. Garfield was elected president and Chester A.



CHESTER A. ARTHUR

JAMES A. GARFIELD

Arthur, vice president. Both were Republicans. Soon after Garfield became president he was shot by a man who had hoped to get a government job. Thereupon Arthur succeeded Garfield.

The people were so shocked at the death of Garfield that they demanded a better system for choosing government workers. In 1883 the Civil Service Act was passed. This

¹ James A. Garfield (like Grant and Hayes) was born in Ohio. In early life he was a teacher. He served in the Civil War and later was a lawyer and a member of Congress. Chester A. Arthur was born in Vermont, but later lived in New York. Like Garfield, Arthur was first a teacher, then a lawyer, and an officer during the Civil War. Garfield went to Williams College; Arthur, to Union College.

law is still in effect. Under it, a government officer gets his position as the result of an examination. For example, if a clerk is to be appointed in a post office, all persons who wish to have the position take an examination. Then the clerk is appointed from those who stand highest in the test.¹

During President Arthur's time the income of the government was very large — larger than the cost of running affairs. The surplus was used, to a considerable extent, to reduce the Civil War debt.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of all the presidents from 1829 to 1885. Place on a time-line the dates of the administration of each, also some significant events of each administration, and the state in which each president was born.

2. Fix in your mind the four big questions before the political parties between 1876 and 1896.

3. Show how John Sherman answered the question that concerned money.

4. Explain what was done during Arthur's administration to answer the question about the appointment of government officials.

5. Name the presidents who died in office before 1885. Explain the circumstances connected with the death of each.

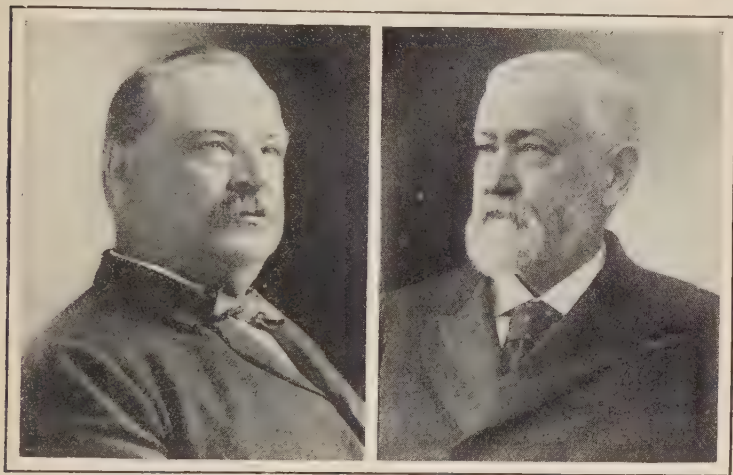
6. Read James Morgan's treatment of Hayes, Garfield, and Arthur in *Our Presidents*, pp. 186-196, 197-207, 208-214.

2. WHAT WERE THE MAIN PROBLEMS CONFRONTING CLEVELAND AND HARRISON?

Three Hard-Fought Presidential Elections. The presidential elections of 1884, 1888, and 1892 were fiercely fought between the Democrats and the Republicans. In 1884 the contest was between Grover Cleveland, a Democrat, and James G. Blaine,

¹ The system was introduced slowly. In Arthur's time about sixteen thousand positions were filled by civil-service examinations; in 1925 about four hundred and twenty-four thousand were filled in this way.

a Republican. Cleveland won the election by a narrow margin and entered office on March 4, 1885. In 1888 Cleveland and Benjamin Harrison were the candidates.¹ Harrison won. In 1892² Cleveland and Harrison were again the contenders, and this time Cleveland won. Hence the country



GROVER CLEVELAND

BENJAMIN HARRISON

had a Democratic president from 1885 to 1889 and from 1893 to 1897, with a Republican during the four years from 1889 to 1893.

¹ Grover Cleveland was born in New Jersey, but lived most of his life in New York. Harrison was another of the many presidents who were natives of Ohio, but he lived in Indiana when he was chosen to the presidency. Cleveland, up to that time, was the youngest president we had had except Grant. Harrison died in 1901; Cleveland, in 1908.

² In the election of 1892 the "Australian," or secret-ballot, system was widely used. Before this a voter had marked his ballot openly — with his friends about him, if he chose. In this way men could hire voters to mark their ballots for a certain candidate, and watch to see that it was done. Beginning in 1892 the voter had to take his ballot and go alone into a place looking somewhat like a telephone booth with no door. There he marked the ballot and then put it into a box. Nobody could be sure how he voted. This system discouraged buying votes, because the buyer could not be absolutely sure that the voter had marked his ballot in the way that he had promised to mark it.

Spending the Government's Extra Money. During Cleveland's first term and during nearly all of Harrison's term the government had a surplus; that is, its income was more than its expenses. Cleveland's idea was to be very frugal in spending money and reduce the taxes, thus doing away with the surplus. Harrison and his friends believed in keeping up the taxes and spending the surplus. During his administration large amounts of money were spent for new post-office buildings, for deepening and widening rivers and harbors, and for increasing the pensions given to veterans of the Civil War. During Cleveland's second term the income became so small that it was not big enough to pay expenses. But the expenses which Harrison had started kept going on; hence the government had to borrow money for a time in order to pay the bills.

The Troublesome Silver Question. While Cleveland and Harrison at different times were at the head of the government, a very difficult question arose — a question so difficult that even the members of Congress in many cases were unable to understand it. To reach the beginning of the matter we must go back to the time of Hayes. At that time business was prospering, and more pieces of money were needed to "make change" and to use in ordinary buying and selling. At the same time large silver mines were being opened in the West. Plenty of silver was at hand. Why not coin all this silver into dollars and half dollars and small change? In 1878 Congress decided to have between two million and four million dollars' worth coined every month. President Hayes did not like the law; neither did Arthur. President Cleveland, although of the other party, agreed with them.

When Harrison came in, however, he and his friends were willing to coin still more silver; hence in 1890 they passed a law which provided that the government should buy an amount almost equal to all the silver mined in the United States. And then two things happened:

More money was in circulation than was needed to "make change" and to do business with.

The price of silver went down and farther down until the value of the silver in a silver dollar was only sixty cents. People became suspicious of silver money. They tried to get gold instead. Business men were uneasy because, they said, they did not know what might happen to the value of the money that they received day by day.

When Cleveland came in the second time, he demanded that the coinage of silver be stopped. Following his advice, Congress repealed the law in 1893. In general, Eastern members of Congress helped Cleveland in this, whether they were Republicans or Democrats. Western and Southern congressmen opposed. In fact, the West and the South were so sure that Cleveland and the East were wrong that we shall hear of this troublesome silver question again.

Civil Service and the Bothersome Tariff Question. Both Cleveland and Harrison wished to continue the new civil-service examination system. They succeeded. Harrison put a young man named Theodore Roosevelt on the committee that had charge of the civil service. Roosevelt helped a great deal. Cleveland saw to it that more and more offices were filled by the examination scheme. By 1897 the plan was in full swing. It has never been changed.

Cleveland and the Democrats generally favored a low tariff; Harrison and the Republicans stood for a high one. When Harrison was in office the Republicans passed the high McKinley tariff in 1890. The people did not like this, and voted the Democrats in when the next election came. Then the Democrats passed the Wilson-Gorman tariff in 1894. The people did not like this either, and voted the Democrats out as soon as they had a chance. We shall hear of the tariff again.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Add the presidents from 1885 to 1897 to your time-line. Show the dates of the administration of each.
2. Show how the Australian ballot system made for more secret and honest voting.
3. Argue for or against Harrison's idea of spending the government's money.
4. Tell in your own words the ups and downs of the silver question during the administrations of Hayes, Cleveland, and Harrison.
5. Explain the attitude of Harrison and Cleveland toward the civil-service system and the tariff question.
6. Read "Grover Cleveland" (pp. 215-226) and "Benjamin Harrison" (pp. 227-230), in *Our Presidents*, by James Morgan.

3. HOW THE DISCONTENT OF THE EARLY NINETIES Arose and Spread

Complaints of the Small Traders, Farmers, and Laboring Men. There was a great deal of dissatisfaction in the United States in the early eighteen-nineties. Some of these complaints can be easily understood. They were voiced mainly by the small business man, the farmer, and organized labor.

The man who did a small business in the average town or city, especially in the West, was disgusted with the operation of the Interstate Commerce Act of 1887 and the Sherman Anti-Trust Law of 1890. He had expected that these laws would protect him from the big corporations that sometimes crushed him. When the laws were not enforced and amounted to little, he was discouraged.

The farmer had complained most of the time for twenty years. The prices which he got for his produce were growing smaller and still smaller. He had to grow more crops and work longer hours to keep his head above water. Hence the farmers were organizing into societies to make their complaints known.

As we have already learned, the wage-earners in the factories and mills had found the strike a means of forcing better working conditions from their employers. In 1894 one of the most important strikes ever known in America failed completely. Laborers all over the country were disappointed. After the strike was over, President Cleveland appointed a committee to see which side was right. After looking into the facts the committee reported that both sides were partly in the wrong.

Business and the Panic of 1893. The small traders, farmers, and laboring men were no more disturbed in the early nineties than the larger business men. The fact was that business was bad, especially in 1893 and 1894. Manufacturers were afraid to make goods because the storekeepers would not buy. The storekeepers would not buy because the people were purchasing as few goods as possible. And the public did not spend money because the factories were running part time or were closed completely. Wages were being cut down, and they had but little money to spend. Business men who had been prosperous found themselves without a penny, and banks by the hundreds stopped business.

Placing the Blame and Suggesting a Remedy. The laborers in the manufacturing cities and the farmers and small business men of the South and West laid the blame on falling prices. And they laid the blame for falling prices on the East, especially on the big business men of that section. Hence the discontented people of the West and South formed the "Populist," or People's, party. This party intended, among other things, to right the farmer's wrongs by raising prices. Now the trouble with falling prices was just this:

Suppose a farmer borrows \$1000 to buy tools and machinery. If his potatoes sell at a dollar a bushel, he must raise a thousand bushels to pay his debt. But suppose prices keep falling until potatoes bring only fifty cents a bushel.

The farmer must now perform the hard work of raising two thousand bushels of potatoes to pay his debt. *We might say that his debt had really doubled.* The Populists had a remedy for the trouble. It was to coin all the silver of the Western mines. This would increase the amount of money; people would pay higher prices, because they would have more money; and the farmer's debt would not grow so fast.

The people of the East, and especially the business men, laid the blame on the West and South. They reasoned somewhat as follows: "The West borrowed money from us. Now they wish to flood the country with silver dollars that contain only about fifty cents' worth of silver. Then they will pay us back in these cheap coins." Hence the East wished to keep down the amount of silver money.

The Hard-Fought Campaign of 1896. When the year 1896 came round, the Populists and the Democrats practically combined, nominating William J. Bryan for president. Bryan favored the coinage of more silver. The Republicans nominated William McKinley,¹ who opposed the greater coinage of silver and thought our problems would be solved by a higher protective tariff. After a bitterly fought campaign McKinley was elected. The East was victorious.

As soon as McKinley was in power he led his party in passing the Dingley tariff law of 1897. This act levied high duties on imported goods.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Explain why the small business man should feel that the Interstate Commerce Act of 1887 and the Sherman Anti-Trust Law of 1890 would help him.

2. Show that prosperous times for the farmers might mean bad times for the wage-earners.

¹ President McKinley was another of the numerous presidents who were born in Ohio, and, like so many presidents since 1865, he took part in the Civil War.

3. Make a list of the business panics that occurred up to 1894. Compare their causes and results.

4. Give a talk on the subject "The Condition and the Desires of the East, West, and South in 1894."

5. Would you have voted for McKinley in 1896 or for Bryan? Give reasons for your answer.

6. For a defense of silver by W. J. Bryan see Selection 39 in *From Lincoln to Coolidge*, by A. E. Logie. "The First Bryan Campaign" is treated in *Our Own Recent Times (1877-1911)*, pp. 108-124, Vol. X of Great Epochs in American History.

UNIT VIII. FOREIGN RELATIONS AND THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR

When President Cleveland was in office the first time, he had very few disputes with foreign countries. More troubles appeared, however, during Harrison's time and during Cleveland's second term. These related to the Samoan Islands, the seals in Alaska, and a boundary dispute between England and Venezuela.

1. HOW HARRISON AND CLEVELAND DEALT WITH FOREIGN AFFAIRS

Samoa. Below the equator, in the Pacific Ocean, on the other side of the earth lie the Samoan Islands. In 1878 the natives of the islands gave the United States a splendid harbor. Soon afterwards they gave other harbors to Germany and Great Britain. This arrangement did not work very well, because the three countries were frequently near war.¹

¹For example, in 1889 two groups of natives fell to quarreling. Germany stepped in with troops and took control. Warships belonging to Germany, Great Britain, and the United States hurried down there. It looked as if a war might start. But on March 16, 1889, a terrific hurricane came on. So savage was this storm that all the war vessels were thrown up on the shore and smashed except one, the English vessel *Calliope*, which steamed straight out to sea in the face of the tornado, the wind shrieking about her, and the mountainous waves promising to send her to the bottom if they could. But the *Calliope* was able to keep going against the wind until the storm subsided.

Cleveland especially did not like being mixed up with other countries in this way. In 1899, after he left office, Great Britain decided to give up her rights in the islands. The United States took one of the islands, and Germany took the rest. Twenty years later Germany's islands were seized by the English colonies in that part of the Pacific, but the United States still holds its one island.

Alaska and the Seals. In 1867 the United States purchased Alaska. A great many seals were accustomed to spend part of the year on some islands near our new possession. Some British ships began hunting the seals as they swam along in the Pacific Ocean toward the islands. Thereupon American vessels captured the British sealers — some in 1886 and some in the years following. England complained. Harrison was now in power, and he agreed to let a group of seven men decide whether the United States did or did not have the right to capture British sealing-ships. The men decided that the United States was wrong, and we had to pay England \$473,000 for the damage we had done to her ships.

The Pan-American Union. More peaceful were our relations with the countries of Central and South America. While Harrison was president (in 1889) delegates met in Washington from the various nations south of us. An association was formed which is called the Pan-American Union. It meets every few years, has a building in Washington, and helps to make the countries acquainted with one another, besides attempting to settle disputes among them.

Coming near War with England. In 1895 President Cleveland almost brought us to war with England. The reason was a boundary dispute between England's colony British Guiana and her neighbor Venezuela. Venezuela thought that she owned a strip of land between herself and British Guiana. England claimed that it belonged to her colony. Cleveland declared that the dispute ought to be turned over to some-

body else for settlement. A powerful country like England, thought Cleveland, could bully a weak country like Venezuela and take disputed land whether it belonged to her or not. This, he said, would be contrary to the Monroe Doctrine. Venezuela was ready to have somebody else settle the dispute, but England was not; thereupon Cleveland said that the United States would decide where the boundary was, and prevent England from going beyond it. This might mean war. Yet neither Great Britain nor the United States really wished to fight. After a little discussion England gave way and agreed to have somebody else decide where the line ought to be. This was done, and most of the disputed land was found to belong by right to British Guiana.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Find the Samoan Islands on the map on page 642. Why should the United States want a harbor in these islands?
2. Make a list of six disputes which the United States had with England between 1800 and 1900. Show how each ended.
3. List the chief nations south of the United States. Show how the Pan-American Union might benefit them and the United States as well.
4. Look up the Monroe Doctrine. Explain how this doctrine entered into our dispute with England in 1895.

2. HOW THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR WAS CAUSED AND FOUGHT

At the beginning of 1898 the island of Cuba belonged to Spain. The inhabitants were in revolt against the mother country, and this trouble greatly interested the United States. In the first place, it seemed as if the Cubans were trying to do the sort of thing that we had done in 1776. In the next place, Americans had millions of dollars' worth of property in Cuba which was being damaged. Moreover, it

seemed that the Spaniards were treating the Cubans with frightful cruelty. People began to urge the President to ask Congress to declare war on Spain and make Cuba free.

The *Maine* and War. The popular demand was suddenly increased after February 15, 1898. On that day the United States battleship *Maine* was at anchor in Havana Harbor in Cuba. Without the slightest warning there was a terrific



THE *MAINE* ENTERING HAVANA HARBOR

explosion, the vessel was sunk, and two hundred and sixty sailors were killed. The American people were greatly excited. A committee was sent to find out what caused the explosion. When the committee reported that a mine had been put under the *Maine* and exploded, the people called for war. Nobody was in a mood to place much reliance on the report of a Spanish committee which claimed that powder in the ship had exploded and caused the accident. On April 19 Congress declared that Cuba ought to be free, and told the President to send an army down to drive the Spaniards out.

Fighting Spain in the Philippines. About this time there was a fleet of American war vessels on the coast of China under

command of Commodore George Dewey. There was a Spanish fleet at Manila Bay in the Philippine Islands, a Spanish colony not far from the coast of China, where Dewey's fleet lay. Orders were sent to Dewey to attack the Spaniards at once. He started as quickly as he could. It was early in the morning of May 1 when he found the Spanish fleet in the bay. There was a short fight which showed that the Americans were better marksmen than the Spaniards. The Spanish ships were sunk, one hundred and sixty-seven men were killed, and two hundred and fourteen were wounded. Not an American ship was hurt, not a man was killed, and only eight were slightly wounded. Supplies of men and ammunition were promptly sent to Dewey, and Spanish ownership of the Philippines came to an end.

Fighting Spain in Cuba. The Spaniards were attacked in Cuba both by land and by sea.

Nearly seventeen thousand men under General Shafter were sent to the south side of the island near Santiago. They were to march inland to capture the city. They met the Spanish troops in skirmish after skirmish and in several pitched battles, always victoriously.

While the land forces were fighting their way toward Santiago, a fleet of American war vessels under Admiral Sampson and Admiral Schley was stationed about the entrance to the harbor. Inside the harbor was a fleet of six Spanish war vessels. The Spaniards now found themselves in this dangerous situation: the American army was pressing toward the city on the land side; the American fleet surrounded the harbor on the water side. What should be done?

On the morning of July 3, 1898, the Spanish war vessels dashed out of the entrance of Santiago harbor in an attempt to get away. The Americans were on the watch and rushed after the enemy at full speed. A running fire was kept up on both sides, but the Spaniards were ill prepared for the conflict.

One by one their vessels were sunk or run ashore, until the entire fleet was a ruin. Three hundred and twenty-three men were killed and one hundred and fifty-one wounded. The Americans lost one killed and one wounded. Their ships were uninjured. The city of Santiago was thus left without protection on the water side and surrendered to the American army.¹

Results of the War. Defeated in the Philippines, defeated at Santiago, and deprived of most of its navy, Spain at length gave in. A treaty was signed which contained the following agreements:

Spain was to give up Cuba and Porto Rico.

Spain was to give the Philippines to the United States for \$20,000,000.

In spite of the great success of the navy the American losses in killed and wounded were considerable, and the numbers that died of disease were still greater. Many complaints were made: one was that the clothing given the soldiers who went to Cuba was better fitted for a cold climate than for a hot one; another was that the War Department knew so little about protecting soldiers that the dangers of illness were more feared than the dangers of battle.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Give three reasons why the United States became interested in the struggle between Spain and Cuba in 1898.

2. "Remember the *Maine*" was an expression on the lips of many people in the United States during the spring and summer of 1898. Explain the reason for this fact. Read "The Blowing Up of the *Maine* in Habana Harbor," in *Our Own Recent Times (1877-1911)*, pp. 125-131, Vol. X of Great Epochs in American History.

3. Locate China and the Philippine Islands. How far did Dewey have to go to make the attack on Manila? Why should he make the attack at all?

¹ A small force was sent to Porto Rico under General Miles. Before much was accomplished the war came to an end.

4. Tell the story of the Spanish-American War in a floor talk of three or four minutes.

5. Read one or more of the following:

a. "William McKinley," in *Our Presidents*, by James Morgan, pp. 236-250.

b. "Hobson and the *Merrimac*" and "Dewey at Manila Bay," in *America First*, by L. B. Evans, pp. 414-422.

c. "A Brief Account of the Spanish-American War" and "The Battle of Manila Bay," in *The Progress of a United People*, edited by C. L. Barstow, pp. 70-77, 93-106.

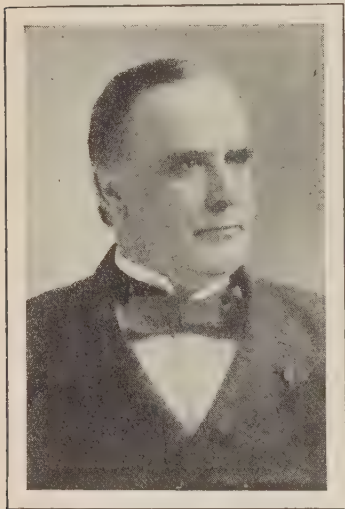
3. COLONIAL RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES

Hawaii. While the Spanish War was in progress the United States annexed Hawaii by arrangement with the people of the islands. Hence at the end of the war the United States found itself in possession of a number of colonies. Many people objected. They felt that the United States was about to make the mistake which England had made in 1776 — the mistake of attempting to govern distant people without their consent. The election of 1900 was fought out partly on the question of colonies. McKinley, renominated by the Republicans, favored having island possessions; Bryan, nominated by the Democrats, opposed the Republican policy. The Republicans won the election, and the question then arose How shall these islands be governed? It was finally decided that Hawaii might become a territory, like the other territories (Arizona and New Mexico) already in the Union. This was accomplished in 1900.

Cuba and Porto Rico. Cuba was in a wretched condition at the close of the Spanish-American War. The Spanish government had collapsed, and the United States helped the Cubans to establish a new government of their own. The island was filthy, and disease was common. The United States helped to clean up the island and to stamp out disease, especially the

dreaded yellow fever. Schools were started, roads were repaired, and good order was obtained. In 1902 Cuba was turned over to the Cubans, with the agreement that the United States would leave the island to itself unless dangerous emergencies arose.

Porto Rico was kept by the United States. Schools were established, roads were repaired and improved, and disease



PRESIDENT WILLIAM MCKINLEY

was met as it was in Cuba. In 1900 a law was passed which set up a government for the island, headed by a governor appointed by the president of the United States.

The Philippines. No sooner was the United States in control of the Philippines than the natives revolted. For more than two years the trouble continued before peace was restored. Then a government was set up, schools were started, roads were built, and smallpox was stamped out. The purpose of all these things has been to

fit the people of the Philippines to govern themselves, but the United States has not yet decided exactly when the islands shall be made free.

The United States in China. While the United States was attempting to find out what was best to do with Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines, a new danger appeared in China. There was in that country a society known as the "Boxers." Among other things, this society was opposed to having so many foreigners in China as there were at that time. Accordingly, all foreigners were ordered out of Peking,

the capital, in 1900. Many of them were killed at once. Soldiers were sent — Japanese, Russian, English, American, German, and French. The Boxers were put down, and China was



A STREET SCENE IN THE PHILIPPINES

compelled to pay for the damage they had done. Peace was restored. *It began to look as if the United States were becoming a world power.*

Death of McKinley. President McKinley was deep in the problems of American relations with the rest of the world when he went to an exposition in Buffalo. Here he was shot and killed by a fanatic. His death occurred on September 14, 1901. The vice president, Theodore Roosevelt, succeeded him.¹

¹President Roosevelt was the youngest man who ever sat in the president's chair, being just under forty-three years of age. As a young man he had been rather frail, but he built himself up until he was one of the most active and athletic presidents we have had. He was fond of the cattle country, and just after graduating from Harvard he spent much of his time on a ranch in what is now North Dakota.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. The Virgin Islands were purchased from Denmark in 1917 for \$25,000,000. They are near Porto Rico (see map on page 620). Can you find out why the islands are of value to the United States?
2. Explain the present relation between the United States and Hawaii; between the United States and Porto Rico.
3. *Resolved*, That the Philippines should be free and independent. Choose sides and debate the question.
4. List the events before 1900 that indicated that the United States was becoming a world power.
5. Read one or more of the following accounts :
 - a. "The Annexation of Hawaii" and "The Assassination of William McKinley," in *Our Own Recent Times (1877-1911)*, pp. 155-158, 159-162, Vol. X of *Great Epochs in American History*.
 - b. "Sudden Expansion of the Colonial System," in *The Expansion of the American People*, by E. E. Sparks, chap. xxxvi.
 - c. "Hawaii, Porto Rico, and the Philippines," in *Steps in the Expansion of Our Territory*, by O. P. Austin, pp. 216-225.

BEFORE LEAVING DIVISION SEVEN

I. Debate one or more of the following subjects :

1. *Resolved*, That the government ought to own and operate the railroads.
2. *Resolved*, That the railroads ought to be owned by private individuals and operated by the United States government.
3. *Resolved*, That the industrial combinations which took place in the eighteen-eighties and eighteen-nineties had more advantages than disadvantages for the country as a whole.
4. *Resolved*, That the organization and work of the Ku-Klux Klan was justifiable during reconstruction days.
5. *Resolved*, That education should have been made a condition to the negro's right to vote.
6. *Resolved*, That the special land grants to the railroads were wrong and un-American in principle.

II. Prepare the following for your notebook :

1. A time-line on which you show the presidential administrations between 1865 and 1900. Make this as complete as you are able to do with the material at your command.
2. A statement of about two hundred words in length about each of the following: Cyrus W. Field, Grover Cleveland, Thomas A. Edison, Clara Barton, William McKinley, Henry Ward Beecher, John Sherman, Alexander Graham Bell.
3. A brief statement of the importance of the following :
 - a. 1867, purchase of Alaska.
 - b. 1869, completion of the first railroad to the Pacific.
 - c. 1876, invention of the telephone.
 - d. 1881, organization of the American Federation of Labor.
 - e. 1887, Interstate Commerce Act.
 - f. 1890, Sherman Anti-Trust Law.
4. A *Hall of Fame* for Division Seven. Select the names to be included in the *Hall* as you have done for the other divisions. It might be well to have a main *Hall* and a minor *Hall*, the former containing not over ten names.
5. The charts, diagrams, and graphs that you have made and the pictures you have collected while studying Division Seven.
6. A map, as follows :
 - a. Title : The Admission of States to 1900.
 - b. Use an outline map of the United States.
 - c. Show the following :
 - (1) Each state in 1900 with the date of admission to the Union. Color the original thirteen states one color, and give the date when each ratified the Constitution.
 - (2) The capital of each state and a few main cities.
 - (3) The territories in 1900.
 - (4) The chief physical features.
 - (5) Place a heavy line of a color of your own selection round the states that were admitted between 1789 and 1829, a line of a different color round those that were admitted between 1829 and 1865, and a line of another color round those that were admitted between 1865 and 1900.

III. Know or be able to do the following things :

1. Give a floor talk on the following :
 - a. Significant changes in industry between 1865 and 1900.
 - b. Chief discoveries, inventions, and improvements between 1865 and 1900.
 - c. The Great West in the eighties.
 - d. Rise of the American city.
 - e. Educational, cultural, and social changes between 1865 and 1900.
2. Identify, in a sentence or two, Garfield, Arthur, Harrison, Dewey, O. H. Kelley, William F. Cody, Tilden, Hayes, Johnson, Barnum, Edward Eggleston, George Peabody, John F. Slater, Daniel Hand, Joel C. Harris, James Lane Allen, W. D. Howells, F. Hopkinson Smith, Samuel L. Clemens, Louisa M. Alcott, Eugene Field, James Whitcomb Riley, Frances H. Burnett, James A. M. Whistler, George Innes, Augustus Saint-Gaudens, Frederick L. Olmstead, Theodore Thomas, Stephen C. Foster, William Jennings Bryan.
3. Locate on an outline map without aid of any sort :
All states and territories in 1900, the Great Plains, Samoan Islands, Alaska, Venezuela, British Guiana, Cuba, Philippine Islands, Manila Bay, Santiago in Cuba, Porto Rico, Rocky Mountains, and the following rivers: Mississippi, Missouri, Ohio, Columbia, Colorado, Rio Grande, Arkansas, Tennessee, Cumberland.

IV. Conduct a "round-table" on historical books and stories read by members of the class while studying Units V-VII. Place the list read by the class in your notebook along with your other material on Division Seven.

V. Reread the Foreword on page 476. How many changes referred to there can you think of without looking at the book? How many after looking at the book?

DIVISION EIGHT

*AMERICA IN OUR FATHERS' TIME AND IN OUR
OWN, 1900-1927*

FOREWORD

If you recall the first Foreword (p. xiii), you will remember that we set out to study America until our fathers, and at last we ourselves, became a part of American history. That time is now at hand. If we had before us the files of a daily newspaper since 1900, we should find that all the things told about in the following pages were "current events" to our fathers or to us. Today's newspaper is a continuation of the history of America recorded in this division.

Three groups of facts are most important to look for :

1. In 1900 nobody knew very much about motion pictures, submarines that would really work, airplanes that would actually fly, radios, farm tractors, or concrete highways. The few automobiles on the streets of the cities frightened the horses. People stopped work to see a "horseless carriage." What will be the effect of these new inventions on our lives?

2. The second important point is the interest taken by the United States in the affairs of the Old World. For a hundred years we had followed the advice given by President Washington in his Farewell Address. With the acquisition of Samoa and Hawaii, of Porto Rico and the Philippines, however, the United States was forced to take more and more interest in the actions of other nations.

3. Finally, there has been an increasing demand for more popular government. Primaries, where the people nominate their political candidates; the popular election of United States senators; woman's suffrage, — all these have put increased responsibilities on each of us.

To the youth of today we pass the torch. Carry on!



THE MARVELS OF MODERN INVENTION IN THE AIR AND ON LAND
AND SEA

This picture shows several of the ways in which very recent American life differs from that of earlier times. Prominent causes of the differences are the airplane, the skyscraper, and the huge ocean-going steamships

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TWO TWELVE-BOOK LIBRARIES

I. A DAY-BY-DAY REFERENCE LIBRARY

Twelve reference books dealing with our history since 1900 are listed below. They are mostly about persons. In reading them, however, you will secure information about many things that occurred in your fathers' time and in your own.

1. *Inventions of the Great War*, by A. R. Bond. The Century Co.

The title suggests the contents. Useful for information on the inventive side of the war.

2. *The Story of the Great War*, by W. S. Braithwaite. The Frederick A. Stokes Company.

A much-read book because of its excellent treatment of all phases of the World War.

3. *A Brief History of the Philippines*, by Leandro H. Fernández. Ginn and Company.

A good place to get material on what the United States has done in the Philippines as well as the history of the Islands before 1898.

4. *The Causes and Meaning of the Great War*, by W. F. Gordy. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Eleven well-written chapters which give much attention to the conditions in Europe that caused the war.

5. *The Story of Thomas Edison*, by Inez N. McFee. One of the Famous Americans for Young Readers Series. Barse & Hopkins.

A well-told story of a life which abounds in surprises. A splendid source for material on the telephone, the phonograph, electric light, the moving-picture machine, and other notable inventions which are now so common in our daily life.

6. *A School History of the Great War*, by A. E. McKinley and others. American Book Company.

A brief history of the world's greatest war.

7. *Panama and its "Bridge of Water,"* by Stella Humphrey Nida. Rand McNally & Company.

A good account of Panama before and after the coming of the Americans.

8. *Letters of a Woman Homesteader*, by E. P. Stewart. Houghton Mifflin Company.

The daily life of a plucky young woman in Wyoming during the years 1909 and 1910. A very interesting picture of homesteading in recent times.

9. *Pilgrims of Today*, by Mary H. Wade. Little, Brown & Company.

John Muir, Jacob Riis, Mary Antin, E. A. Steiner, Carl Schurz, Nathan Straus, and Joseph Pulitzer.

10. *The Wonder-Workers*, by Mary H. Wade. Little, Brown & Company.

Luther Burbank, Helen Keller, William R. George, Thomas A. Edison, Jane Addams, Dr. W. T. Grenfell, and Judge Benjamin B. Lindsey.

11. *Famous Leaders of Industry* (First Series), by Edwin Wildman. The Page Company.

Contains short accounts of twenty-six leaders in various walks of life. Most of them are still living.

12. *Famous Leaders of Industry* (Second Series), by Edwin Wildman. The Page Company.

Short accounts of twenty-eight leaders in almost as many lines of endeavor. Most of them are still living. You will enjoy reading about them, for you see their names frequently in newspapers and magazines.

II. A STORY-BOOK LIBRARY

Below are twelve books, some of which you will want to read straight through while you are studying Division Eight. Glance over the list and check those you already know. Do you own any of them?

1. *The Forest of Swords*, by Joseph A. Altsheler. D. Appleton and Company.

A story of Paris and the Marne during the World War.

2. *The Hosts of the Air*, by Joseph A. Altsheler. D. Appleton and Company.

A World War story. The title suggests the contents.

3. *The Guns of Europe*, by Joseph A. Altsheler. D. Appleton and Company.

This is the first of the series of three. They are much alike.

4. *Uncle Sam's Children*, by Oscar P. Austin. D. Appleton and Company.

A story of life in the Philippines.

5. *Ben, the Battle-Horse*, by W. A. Dyer. Henry Holt and Company.

A story of the World War. One of the books in most demand in all juvenile libraries. Do not miss it.

6. *Ba-Long-Long, the Igorot Boy*, by A. E. Jenks. Row, Peterson & Company.

A word picture of life in the mountain villages of Luzon, the largest island in the Philippine archipelago, by one who spent a part of his life among the Igorot people of Bontoc.

7. *Our Little Alaskan Cousin*, by Mary F. Nixon-Roulet. The Page Company.

A little story about the people and country of Alaska, one of the large possessions of the United States.

8. *Basco, our Little Panama Cousin*, by H. Lee M. Pike. The Page Company.

The title suggests the contents of this story.

9. *The Wonder of War at Sea*, by Francis Rolt-Wheeler. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

Aims to reveal what naval war has become. Naval actions in the World War are interestingly set forth.

10. *Scouting with General Pershing*, by Everett T. Tomlinson. Doubleday, Page & Company.

11. *New Little Americans*, by Mary H. Wade. W. A. Wilde Company.

Stories about children in our island possessions.

12. *Our Little Philippine Cousin*, by Mary H. Wade. The Page Company.

A story which gives an excellent account of everyday life in the Philippines about 1902.

DIVISION EIGHT

AMERICA IN OUR FATHERS' TIME AND IN OUR OWN, 1900-1927

UNIT I. IMPORTANT INVENTIONS AND IMPROVEMENTS SINCE 1900

It is too early to tell exactly how American life will be changed by the inventions and improvements made after 1900. However, we can describe some of the effects. We know that the effects have been very great. It is impossible to give even a list of all the interesting changes, but a few of the most important are the following.

1. GREAT INCREASE IN FOREIGN COMMERCE AND IN WEALTH

Foreign Commerce. American trade with the rest of the world has always been large, but after 1900 it grew to a greater size than ever. In 1900 it was about two and a quarter billions of dollars; in 1925 it was more than eight and a half billions.¹ Ships carried wheat and flour, cotton and meat, iron and steel, oil and copper, to Great Britain, Germany, France, South America, and the Netherlands. They returned with sugar, with hides for making leather, and with coffee, silk, and chemicals. All this means that many thousands of people in Europe and America were making things

¹ Nobody, of course, can understand the meaning of such huge amounts of money, but it helps a little to compare the figures with the cost of the four long years of the Civil War. The combined expense for the Union government and the Confederate government was four and three-quarters billions.

for one another's safety, comfort, and pleasure, and were exchanging some of these things by sending them across the ocean in ships.

To help American exporters and importers, the United States government has men called consuls in all the chief ports of the world. One of the duties of consuls is to keep watch for chances to buy and sell goods. The information



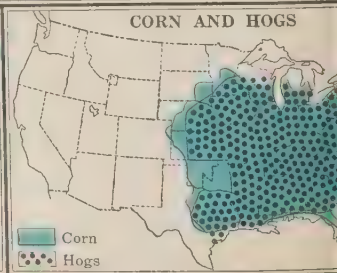
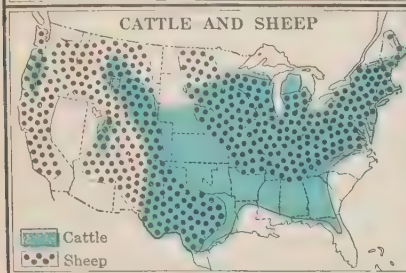
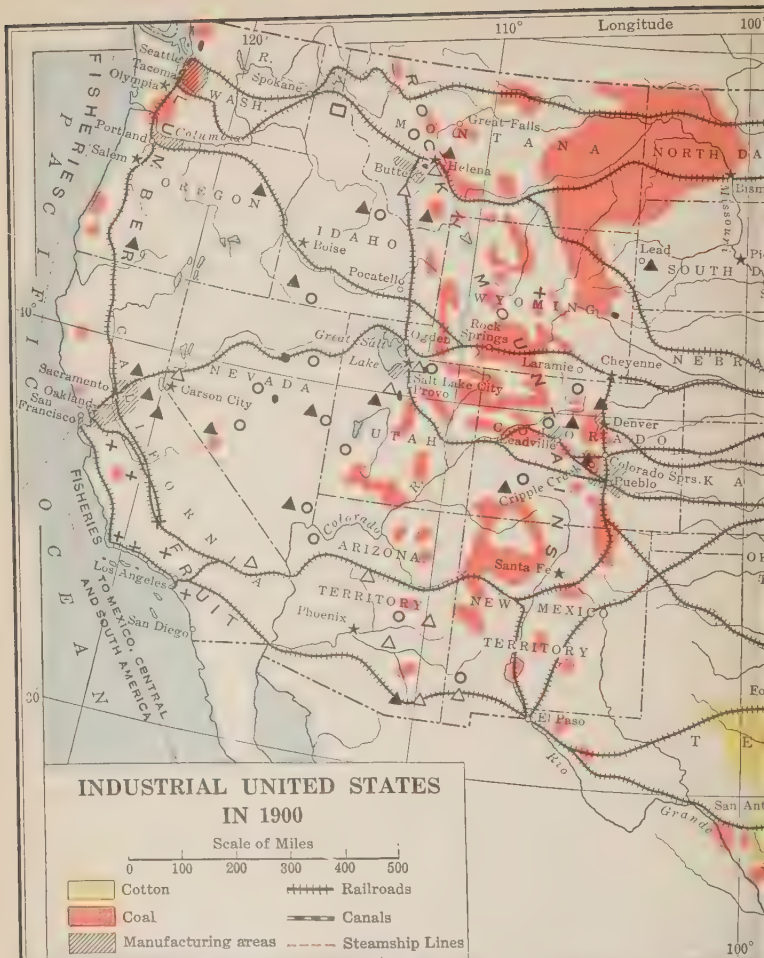
S. S. *CITY OF ALAMEDA*, A MODERN FREIGHT CARRIER

which they gather is published every day in a United States government report and sent to Americans who are interested in foreign trade.¹

To help trade within the United States, the government started a parcel-post system in 1913. Under the law passed at that time small packages can be sent by mail just as letters and newspapers are mailed. Within two years forty-one million packages were being mailed every twelve months.²

¹ For example, suppose that the consul in a South American city heard that the farmers thereabouts were thinking of using American farm machinery. He would report the fact to our government at Washington, and the next daily consular report would contain the news. Then American manufacturers of agricultural machinery could send advertising material or salesmen to the South American city.

² How many are being mailed at present is not known, since the government gave up keeping a record of the number in 1921.



Increase in Wealth. Because of numerous scientific inventions, because of fertile land and plentiful resources in timber, minerals, and domestic animals, and because of a kindly climate and their own vigorous energies, the people of the United States were rapidly becoming more well-to-do. It is impossible to tell exactly how much better off the average person was in 1927 than in 1900, but the average value of the property owned by each person was very much more. Three times as much money had been placed by people in the savings banks. Many more people traveled to other parts of the United States, or to Europe, or even around the world. By 1927 a greater proportion of the people of the United States than of the people of any other country lived in comfort and traveled for pleasure and education about the world.

2. HOW DISTANCES WERE MADE SHORTER

The Influence of the Automobile. The automobile entered American life in the nineties, but the manufacture of cars did not become an industry until 1899. Then it grew with remarkable speed :

In 1899	3,700 cars were made
In 1904	22,000 cars were made
In 1909	130,000 cars were made
In 1914	569,000 cars were made
In 1919	2,000,000 cars were made
In 1924	3,600,000 cars were made
In 1925	4,160,000 cars were made

It is easy to see many ways in which American life has been affected by motor cars :

We can travel moderate distances more quickly and easily than ever before.

The number of people who earn their living in the automobile industry is now well toward a million.

Many persons have come to know each other, their state,

and even the United States better because of the automobile. Thousands travel now where hundreds traveled before 1900.

Automobile accidents kill far more people every year than were killed on the battlefields of the entire War of 1812.

Enormous amounts of freight are carried by automobile trucks, and an ever-increasing number of people travel in motor busses and cars. In these ways the automobile has affected the railroads by taking away part of their business. In some portions of the country the motor bus has nearly or quite driven the electric street railways out of existence.¹



ELWOOD HAYNES IN HIS FIRST AUTOMOBILE, AND A MODERN AUTOMOBILE

As the automobile came into such common use, people everywhere began to demand better roads. Towns, counties, states, and the Federal government itself were compelled to appropriate increasing amounts of money for building, improving, and repairing highways. It is very difficult to find out exactly how many miles of roads are being built all over the country and how much they all cost; but the good roads that were built in any very recent year would certainly go around the earth, with some miles to spare (in 1922 there

¹ Improvements in other forms of machinery are so numerous that most of them cannot even be mentioned. Improvements in agricultural machinery have already been spoken of, and the use of gasoline and oil engines to drive the machines. The cream separator greatly lessened the farmer's work, and the Babcock test helped him to find out just how much butter-fat his dairy milk contained. It is this fat that makes the milk most valuable.

would have been nine miles to spare), and the cost of all road work in 1922 would have paid the entire United States debt in Washington's presidency *seventeen times over*. With such a highway system, large and comfortable motor coaches carry passengers between cities hundreds of miles apart, and even across the United States.

The Wireless Telegraph. For many years a large number of people believed that telegraphing could be done without wires.



STATION KOA OF THE GENERAL ELECTRIC COMPANY, DENVER

A station for broadcasting wireless messages

In 1901 an Italian electrician named Marconi discovered a method which promised real success. Other scientists also were working to secure the same results. Ships began to use the wireless telegraph. In 1910 the United States Congress compelled all American ships carrying passengers to have wireless-telegraph equipment. In 1922 the various nations agreed that any ship in trouble at sea could send out as a call of distress the letters *S O S*. Many lives have been saved by means of this signal.

Nobody can tell yet what the effects of the wireless telegraph and the radio will be. Instead of waiting for weeks or months, as people once had to do, to hear about some important event, we can know in a few moments what has occurred. Instead of speaking to the few people who could press near him, as all our presidents up to 1920 had done, a president is now able to talk directly to millions of people. His voice may be familiar to millions of listeners who have never seen him. In the same way, news and music can be sent everywhere. Pictures even are being sent by wireless. Without moving from his chair a man may hear a church service in Chicago, listen to a lecture in Los Angeles, and enjoy an orchestra in New York. In 1927 wireless telephone service was started between New York and London.

The Submarine and the Airplane. The wireless came to make travel on the sea more safe, just as the submarine boat came to make it dangerous. For centuries men had dreamed of traveling under the sea, but the dangers had defied success. An American named J. P. Holland had built undersea vessels from 1875 to 1898, being more successful as time went on. Our navy added one of Holland's boats about 1900. Then all the other countries commenced to experiment. Bigger and safer boats were made — some to hold more than twenty persons. Man at last could "sail" under the waves, but his submarine was really of very little use to him except as a part of a navy. A small crew of men in an undersea boat could creep up beside a vessel filled with passengers, strike a blow that would hurl all the people into the ocean, and then safely slip away.

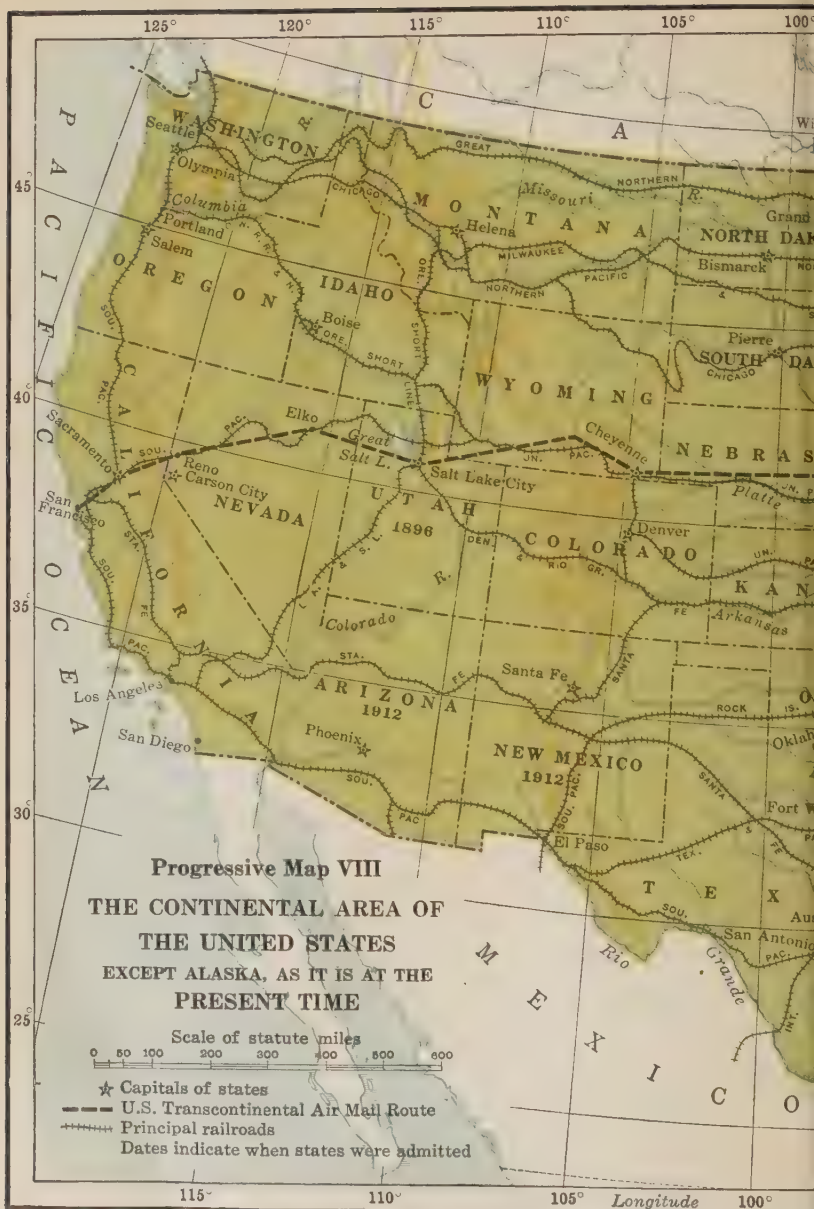
A flying machine or airplane has been the dream of many men for many centuries. At last, in 1903, Orville Wright and his brother Wilbur, using the results of the work of men who had gone before, succeeded in flying for fifty-nine seconds. Their little plane was kept in the air by two propellers

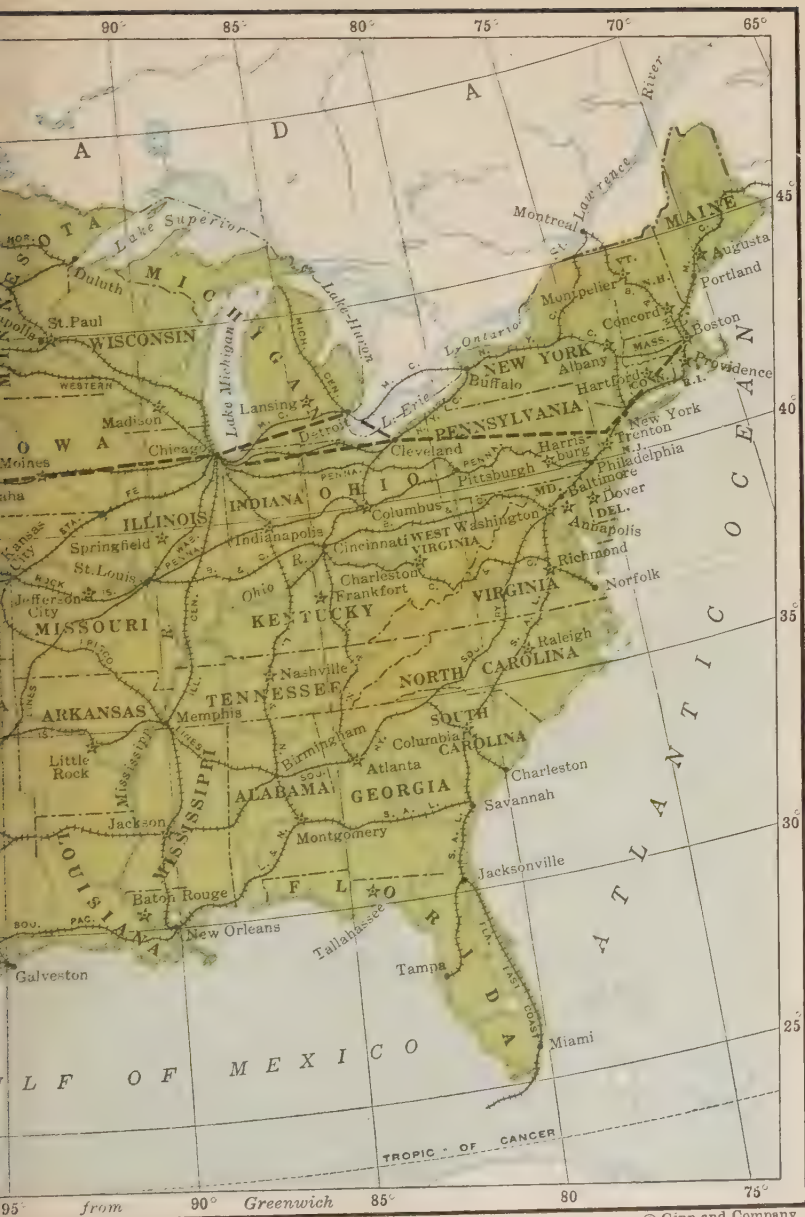
(resembling the screw of a motor boat or steamboat), which were kept moving by a gasoline engine similar to that in an automobile. The success of the Wrights started other experiments, and countless improvements were made. Airplanes were made larger and safer, and speed was increased.

In 1919 a group led by A. C. Read flew across the Atlantic, stopping at the Azores; and Alcock and Brown, British airmen, flew from Newfoundland to Ireland without stopping. In 1924, United States Army planes made their way around the world. In 1926 R. E. Byrd flew to the North Pole (which another American, Robert E. Peary, had reached by ship and on foot in 1909). And finally, in 1927, Captain Charles A. Lindbergh flew alone and without a stop from New York to Paris.¹

Photography and Motion Pictures. Compared with the airplane and the submarine, the photographic camera is an ancient machine, for good photographs were taken as early as 1839 in France. After our Civil War the methods of taking pictures were greatly improved. During the eighteen-seventies there was a famous dispute as to how many feet a trotting horse had on the ground when he was going at full speed. In 1877, to settle the dispute, a long row of cameras was placed beside a race track, and each camera took a picture as the horse went by. This experiment was followed by a great many others, which led the way to what we know as "moving pictures." Since 1900, and especially since 1910, the motion-picture industry has grown very rapidly. By 1920 it was one of the great industries of the country. This is one of the rapid developments of recent times the future and effects of which we cannot yet see. How far will inventors be able to go in making colored motion pictures? How successful will they be in combining sound with pictures so that words will be

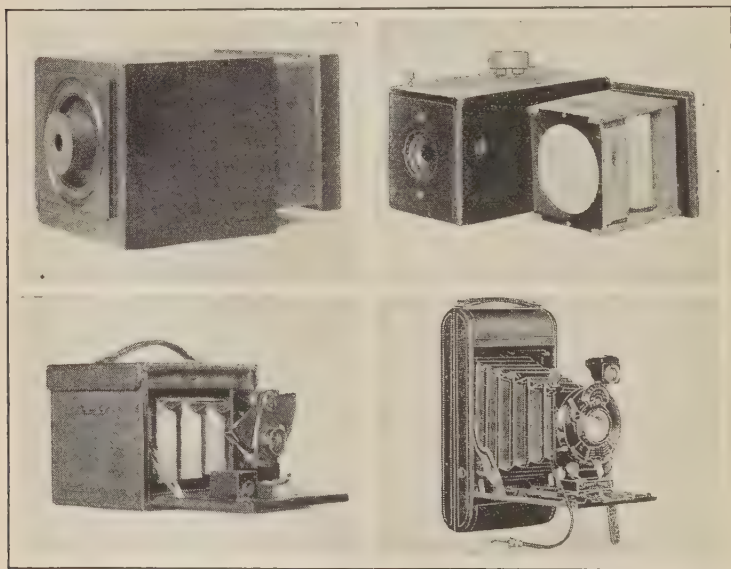
¹ By a law passed in 1925 the Post Office Department even carried mail by airplane from New York through Chicago to San Francisco. If only the men who drove the covered wagons across the plains and the men who rode the pony express could see the airplane mail!





heard when the actors and actresses are seen talking? Will good motion pictures drive out the bad ones? How much can they be used to help education in the schools?

Electricity for Power and Light. The increased use of electricity for power and light since 1900 has kept pace with the other improvements which have just been mentioned. Every



DEVELOPMENT OF THE CAMERA FROM THE FIRST DAGUERREOTYPE MODEL
TO A RECENT FOLDING KODAK

part of the country has greatly increased its demand for electricity. Wires carry the electricity hundreds of miles across counties and even across entire states to towns and cities where the power is used. Tremendous amounts of water power are still unemployed in all parts of the United States. Many scientists think that in the future, unless new supplies of coal are discovered, the waterfalls will have to be utilized to make electricity for most of our power and light.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Express in the form of a bar diagram the facts relating to the increase in the production of automobiles given on page 597.
2. Make a list of some good and bad results of the coming of the automobile into American everyday life.
3. Show the influence of the wireless telegraph, the radio, and the airplane on American everyday life.
4. Read "The Wright Brothers' Aëroplane," in *The Progress of a United People*, edited by C. L. Barstow, pp. 125-134.
5. Show what effect the improvements in photography have had on the appearance of the daily newspaper.

UNIT II. IN PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT'S TIME

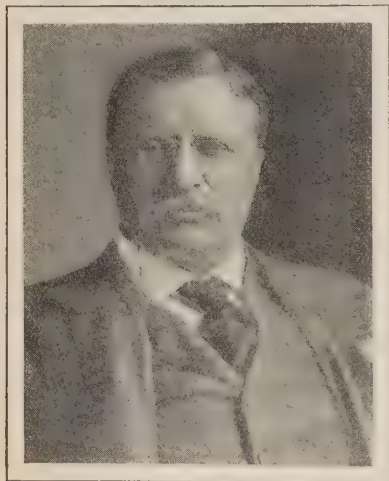
Roosevelt became president at a critical time. The West and the South were still discontented. Many questions about our colonial possessions had to be answered. Moreover, some changes were rapidly taking place in American industry.

1. WHAT CHANGES OCCURRED IN INDUSTRY ABOUT 1900?

Rising Prices after 1896. We know that prices for agricultural products dropped most of the time from 1865 to the middle nineties. It was this fact in part that caused so much complaint among the farmers. But late in the nineties there came a change. Great quantities of gold were discovered in the Klondike section of Alaska. Much of this gold was coined in the United States. Money became more plentiful. For this and for other reasons all prices rose. The Western farmer became more contented, for he now sold his products to greater advantage. In the meantime, however, what was the effect of higher prices on clerks, on workmen in factories, and, in fact, on almost everybody? If they had to buy all their food and clothing, how would rising prices please them?

The increased cost of everything made them, of course, very much discontented. The only way for them to pay higher prices was to secure higher wages. After a time wages began to go up, partly because of the demands of the labor unions, and partly because employers saw the necessity of paying more.

The Great Combinations. Relations between the workingmen and the employers were rapidly becoming more critical, about 1900, for another reason besides the question of wages.



PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT

The new reason had to do with the greatest combinations of corporations that the world had ever seen.

The large corporations formed after 1865 now began to combine into still larger ones. They employed men by tens of thousands and even by hundreds of thousands; they owned hundreds of square miles of land, scores of factories, and hundreds of miles of railroad track.

The same thing was noticed in the railroad business and in the banking business. Large railroad systems were grouped into still larger ones; large banks took over the care of money belonging to the great corporations and railroads.

Many people became alarmed. They were afraid that the big corporations were getting too strong — so strong that they could say just how much everybody should pay for the goods that the corporations made, just what wages everybody should receive, and even who should go to Congress and who should be president of the United States. People were asking

what should be done about the corporations? Should they be compelled to break apart? Should new combinations be prevented? Should they be allowed to charge any price that they chose for their goods?

Another serious question was about the public land and the forests and mines. Originally the United States government



THE RAILROADS IN 1900

The mileage of the railroads in the United States in 1900 was almost equal to an eight-track road encircling the globe. Compare this map with the maps which are shown on pages 530 and 531

had owned huge amounts of land in the West. By 1900 the best of this had been given away or sold to railroads, settlers, and others. The United States had possessed endless forests and mines. How long could these last with huge corporations cutting down the forests and exhausting the mines?¹

¹ An important law relating to these matters was one passed in 1920, called the Federal Water Power Act. This law allows companies to "lease," or hire, land near waterfalls belonging to the United States. The companies may lease the land for fifty years, build power plants, and sell electric power to the people in the country around. The company pays the government a rent each year, and at the end of fifty years it may lease the land again if the government agrees.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Mention the two big changes that occurred in American history soon after 1900. Explain the cause of each change.
2. Show that prices and wages usually tend to rise together and fall together.
3. Why did many people become alarmed over the formation of large corporations?

2. HOW ROOSEVELT DEALT WITH THREE IMPORTANT PROBLEMS

About 1900 and shortly afterwards, then, the United States faced the following three problems. (They might be called the Roosevelt problems, because Theodore Roosevelt became president in 1901, just as the country was facing them.)

Should something be done to prevent the corporations from getting so big and powerful?

Should the railroads be allowed to form into big groups?

Were the forests and mines being used up too quickly?

President Roosevelt was well fitted to wrestle with these questions: he had been for a long time in various public offices and had thought about the problems; he was not afraid of any amount of opposition; and he was so popular that a great many people would be enthusiastic about anything he did.

Corporations and the Coal Strike. In the summer of 1902 President Roosevelt went on a speech-making tour through the North and Northeast. He told the people that the corporations were doing many wrong things that ought to be stopped.

Just at this time the Pennsylvania coal-miners struck — about one hundred and forty-seven thousand of them. The cold weather came on, and still no settlement of the strike was made. There was no coal for stoves and furnaces in the North. Prices for coal went higher and higher. People were beginning

to suffer, and then to be frightened, when President Roosevelt asked the miners and the mine-owners to turn the dispute over to a committee to investigate and arbitrate. The strikers agreed; the mine-owners refused. The people became stirred up against the mine-owners. Finally the owners gave way to the President, and a committee was appointed which decided that the miners were partly right and partly wrong, but that they deserved higher wages.

The coal strike was important because it showed that a labor dispute might affect a large section of the country, it showed the people that a few corporations had the power to stop the supply of such a necessity as coal, and it increased President Roosevelt's popularity and helped him to accomplish the next thing that he had in mind.

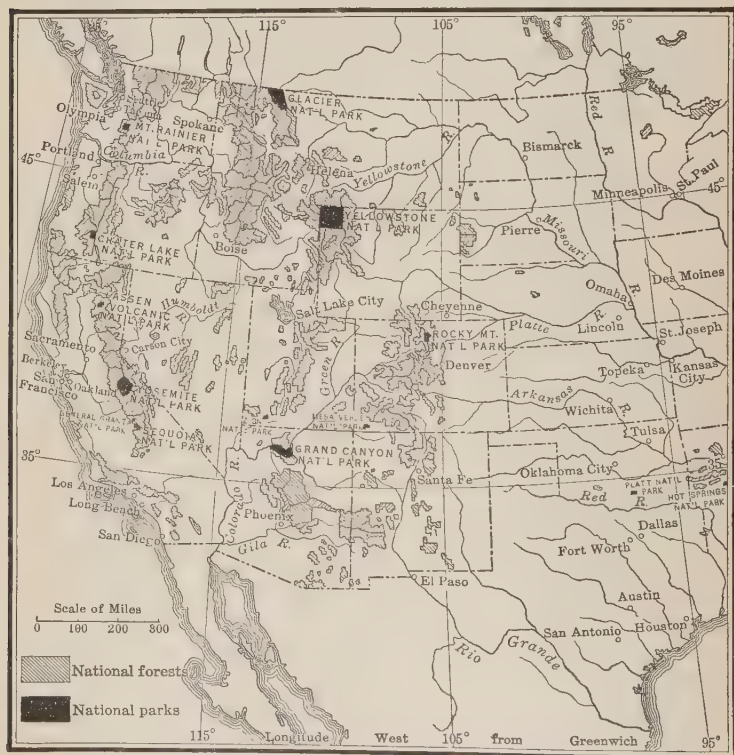
Roosevelt and the Corporations. The President knew that the railroads were guilty of an unfair practice known as "rebating." In other words, the railway companies charged the same rate to all people who shipped freight on their roads, but they returned part of the money as a "rebate" to a few favorite shippers. People who did not get rebates naturally complained. The President asked Congress to pass a law forbidding rebates; then he strictly enforced the law, and rebating stopped.

During the same year (1903) Congress passed a law putting \$500,000 into the hands of the President. The money was to be used to compel corporations to obey the Sherman Anti-Trust Act and to force the railroads to obey the Interstate Commerce Act.

President Roosevelt was in the midst of these activities when the election of 1904 occurred. The Democratic candidate was Judge Alton B. Parker. Roosevelt's popularity was so great that his victory was overwhelming. Many of the Western states had voted earlier for Bryan, partly because they thought he would make the railroads and corporations

obey the laws. Now that Roosevelt was doing what they wished, many of them voted for him.

Roosevelt's Interest in Conservation. Roosevelt also took a great interest in "conservation"; that is, in preventing



FOREST RESERVATIONS IN THE WEST

the waste of the forests, minerals, and other resources of the country. A few important conservation projects were the following:

Public lands which contained forests were set aside. They were not to be sold to anybody, and the timber on them was to be cut with care under government direction.

Many areas of the West which contained especially beautiful scenery were set aside as national parks. Thousands of people now visit them every year.¹

Government lands containing minerals and water power were not to be wasted, but were to be used for the public good.



THE GREAT FALLS OF THE YELLOWSTONE RIVER, IN YELLOWSTONE NATIONAL PARK

Huge reservoirs were built in dry parts of the West in order to irrigate land that would be fertile if supplied with water.

All these things had been done to some extent earlier, but Roosevelt got so many people interested in conservation in

¹ The largest and most famous of these is Yellowstone Park, which was opened in 1872. It is in northwestern Wyoming and covers 3348 square miles. Besides its mountain scenery, the park contains geysers, boiling springs, and volcanoes, petrified forests, and a wonderful canyon. It is also a "game preserve," where wild animals can live safe from hunters. There are thousands of antelopes, bears, buffaloes, elk, and moose in the park.

every state of the Union that more was accomplished in his time than had ever been done before.

Building the Panama Canal. Still another of President Roosevelt's plans was the building of a canal across the Isthmus of Panama. Various people had talked about doing this ever since colonial days. A French company had even started work and accomplished a great deal. The United



TRANSFORMATION OF THE DESERT. THE RESULT OF IRRIGATION

States bought out the French company and in 1903 purchased a strip of land ten miles wide across the Isthmus.¹ Actual digging did not start until 1906, and it was not until 1914 that vessels began using the Canal. The great saving in time and distance over a journey around South America soon made the Panama Canal a popular waterway.

¹ The ten-mile strip was purchased from Panama, which had previously been part of the Republic of Colombia. The land was obtained in such a way that the South American countries felt that the United States had practically stolen it. Many people in the United States also disliked the way it was done, and in 1922 we paid Colombia \$25,000,000.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Answer the three questions that faced the country in 1907. Justify your answers with specific reasons.
2. Show Roosevelt's fitness to wrestle with the three big problems that he faced when he became president.
3. "The Importance of the Coal Strike of 1902." Discuss in a brief floor talk.
4. Account for Roosevelt's large majority in the election of 1904.
5. In 1925 some of the Western railroads were having a hard time. Their managers said their troubles were caused by the Panama Canal. Explain how this could be.

3. THE POLITICAL RESULTS OF ROOSEVELT'S WORK

President Roosevelt's administration brought two important questions before the people of the whole country :

Does the country favor the conservation of forests, mines, water power, and public lands ?

Does the country favor laws which tell the corporations and railroads what they can do and cannot do ?

On these questions there were great differences of opinion.

New Political Questions. There were, moreover, several new questions in regard to how much power the voters ought to have and who ought to be allowed to vote. For example, there were the initiative and the referendum, which were adopted in South Dakota in 1898 and in many Western states soon afterwards. Under the initiative plan a group of citizens may draw up a proposed law. If they can get a certain number of other voters to join them, they can have the proposal voted on by the entire state. If the proposal is accepted, it becomes a law just as if the state legislature had passed it. Under the referendum plan, if a certain number of voters do not like a law which has been passed by the state legislature, they can protest ; then the voters of the entire state decide

whether to keep the law or to reject it. The initiative and referendum gave the people much more power over law-making than they had had before.

Somewhat the same idea was observable in the demand for the *popular election of United States senators*. Senators had always been chosen by the state legislatures. Many people thought that the voters themselves should choose senators. An amendment to the Constitution was therefore drawn up providing for popular election of United States senators. It was accepted by the states as the Seventeenth Amendment, and since 1913 senators have been elected by the voters.

New Questions about Industry. Many new ideas about industry were also being expressed. If we can imagine ourselves taking two trips through the great American factories — one trip in 1890, and the other in 1927 — we can easily understand what the new ideas were.

In the factories seen on our later trip we should discover more windows, giving more light and air; we should see more safeguards to protect workmen from dangerous machinery; we should see playgrounds beside many factories, and rooms inside where the employees could rest, read magazines, and eat their lunch.

We should find the employees working *eight hours* a day, instead of ten or twelve as formerly. We should find that more women were working, but were staying in the shops for fewer hours than before. In most states we should see fewer children — more of them would be in school.

In 1927 we should have found another serious question settled. If a workman is hurt on a railroad or in a factory, must he pay all his doctor's bills and lose his wages, or ought the employer to help him? This was a serious matter, because thousands of men were being injured every year. Between 1908 and 1920 many laws were passed by the United States and by the states about this question.

The Workmen's Compensation Acts, as they are usually called, varied from state to state. In general, though, they compelled the employer to pay at least part of the doctor's bills and to give the injured man part of his wages while he was unable to work.

William Howard Taft and the Split in the Republican Party. Roosevelt was followed in the presidency by his Secretary of War, William H. Taft.¹ President Taft was a Republican and a close friend of Roosevelt's.

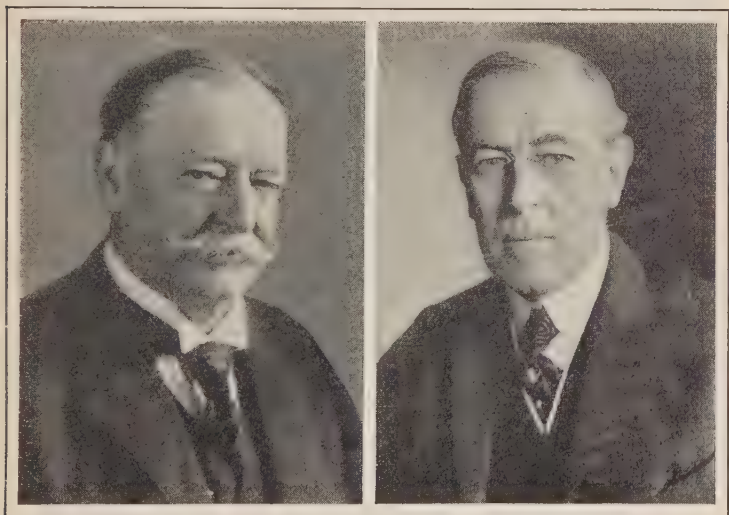
During President Taft's time the movements which have just been described were all going forward. Conservation was carried on. The states were actively making reforms in their factory laws. In 1913 an amendment was added to the Constitution—the Sixteenth—which allowed Congress to tax people according to the size of their incomes. Before that time most of the government revenue had come from tariff duties.

The tariff was revised while Taft was president, and a new railroad law practically prevented the railway companies from changing the rates which they charged unless the government agreed to the change.

It was too much to expect that so many new problems could be solved without differences of opinion arising. The differences of opinion began to appear while President Taft was in office. Some people wished to adopt the new ideas rather slowly; others wished to push them forward more quickly. Some believed that the new tariff law was a very excellent one; others thought that it did not carry out the promises of the party at all. They said that too many of its provisions had been put in by selfish corporations who were looking out for their own profits and did not care in the least for the public good. Still other people were divided on the

¹ William H. Taft was born in Ohio in 1857. Before being president he had been a lawyer, a judge, and governor of the Philippine Islands, as well as Secretary of War. After leaving the presidency he became Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, the only president who ever held this high office.

subject of conservation. Taft's friends said that he was much interested in taking care of the public resources; his enemies claimed that he had shut his eyes and allowed the big corporations to seize a great deal of the best timber and mineral lands. Hence when the election of 1912 came round, three parties appeared. The regular Republicans renominated



PRESIDENT WILLIAM H. TAFT

PRESIDENT WOODROW WILSON

Taft. They were the men who wished to go slowly with the progressive ideas, who liked the new tariff, and who liked the President's ideas on conservation. The Progressive party nominated Roosevelt. This party was made of the men who wished to go faster, who thought the new tariff was wrong, and who believed that Taft was letting the public lands get away from the government. The Democrats nominated and elected Woodrow Wilson, governor of New Jersey.¹

¹ Woodrow Wilson was born in Virginia in 1856. Before becoming president he had been a writer of books on history and government, a professor in Princeton University and later president of it, and then governor of New Jersey. He died in 1924.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Show how the initiative and referendum gave the people more power over lawmaking than they had had before the adoption of these plans. Do you have these laws in your state?
2. Turn to the Constitution and read the old and the new way of electing United States senators. Which do you think is better? Why?
3. "Improvements in Labor Conditions since 1890." Discuss in a brief floor talk.
4. Account for the split in the Republican party in 1912.
5. Read James Morgan's treatment of Roosevelt and Taft in *Our Presidents*, pp. 251-270.

UNIT III. THE NATION UNDER THE LEADERSHIP
OF WOODROW WILSON

President Wilson's term began on March 4, 1913. Like Roosevelt, he believed that the president should be the leader of the country, and he proceeded to put his belief into effect. To understand the first thing that he did, we must remember something about the history of Washington's day.

1. WHAT CHANGES AND REFORMS DID WILSON
INAUGURATE?

Talking instead of Writing to Congress. When Washington had advice to give to Congress, he went before that body and in a speech said what he had to suggest. From Jefferson's time to Taft's, however, the presidents *wrote* what they had to say, and sent the written message to Congress. President Wilson thought that he would get better results by *talking* to Congress than by writing. Hence he revived Washington's custom. Later presidents have frequently done as Washington and Wilson did.

Economic Changes and Reforms. The first important change that the Democrats made was one which lowered the tariff.

The law also took advantage of the Sixteenth Amendment to the Constitution and laid a tax on incomes. Within a few years the income tax gave the government a larger revenue than the tariff had ever given. Under the system started in 1913, people with larger incomes paid larger taxes, and people with smaller incomes paid smaller taxes. People with very small incomes were not required to pay any tax whatever.¹



PRESIDENT WILSON READING A MESSAGE TO CONGRESS

President Wilson and his Congress also took up the money question, which had been so much discussed during the nineties. As a result the Federal Reserve Act of 1913 was passed. This law is hard to understand, but the most important part is this:

There are certain times in the year when a great deal more money is needed than at other times. Christmas, for example, is a time when much money is needed, because more

¹ Even the *rate* charged on the larger incomes was larger than that on smaller incomes; for example, incomes of over \$3000 were taxed at the rate of 1 per cent, incomes over \$20,000, at 2 per cent; and so on until incomes over \$500,000 were taxed at the rate of 6 per cent.

people are buying and selling things than at any other time. After Christmas is over, less money is needed. Another busy season is the autumn, when crops all over the country are being harvested. At that time a great deal of money is being paid to hired laborers, and the immense harvest everywhere has to be carried to barns and warehouses and shipped in trucks and freight cars to the cities and the flour mills and other places where the demand is great. All these things require a great deal of money. How could a system be set up by which plenty of pieces of money could be put into circulation when needed, and taken out of circulation when not needed? The Federal Reserve system answered the question.

It provided that there should be twelve banks in various parts of the country, all controlled by a government committee called the Federal Reserve Board. The banks are known as Federal Reserve Banks.¹ When more money is needed in the states served by a Federal Reserve Bank, the bank puts paper money into circulation. When the need ends, the bank takes the money back. If you should look at several pieces of paper money, you would almost always find that at least one is a Federal Reserve note.

President Wilson and Congress also passed anti-trust laws, as had been done in Roosevelt's time. There was also established a Federal Trade Commission, which sees that anti-trust laws are carried out and tries to prevent corporations from doing unfair things.

The foregoing laws were passed more easily and quickly than generally happens in politics. Indeed, it looked as if a considerable number of much-needed changes might be made. This might have come about if it had not been for the danger of war. The first difficulty was with Mexico.

¹ These banks are located in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Cleveland, Richmond, Atlanta, Chicago, St. Louis, Minneapolis, Kansas City, Dallas, and San Francisco.

Our Controversy with Mexico. Mexico had been the scene of a civil war during the years just before Woodrow Wilson came to the presidency. Taft had been much worried about it and had left the difficulty to President Wilson. The Mexicans were harming us in three ways:

Americans in Mexico were being killed; Americans had millions of dollars' worth of property there in ranches and



AMERICAN TROOPS ON THE MEXICAN BORDER IN 1916

mines, which were threatened by the Mexicans; sometimes Mexicans came over the border into the United States and did damage.

Some people wished to make war on Mexico and stop all this, but the President believed that war would do more harm than good. He hoped that the Mexicans might end this civil war and settle down to peaceful self-government. The situation was very dangerous, however, for this reason: if the Mexicans should ride over the border and kill any more

Americans, our own people might force our government into war. What could the government do to prevent such raids? The method used was a simple one. President Wilson sent down a small army under General John J. Pershing, with the permission of the president of Mexico. General Pershing went into Mexico, kept the Mexicans from crossing the border, and stopped all danger of war. He did his work so skillfully that it was certain he would be called on for more service if the country went to war. Besides, his army obtained much useful experience.

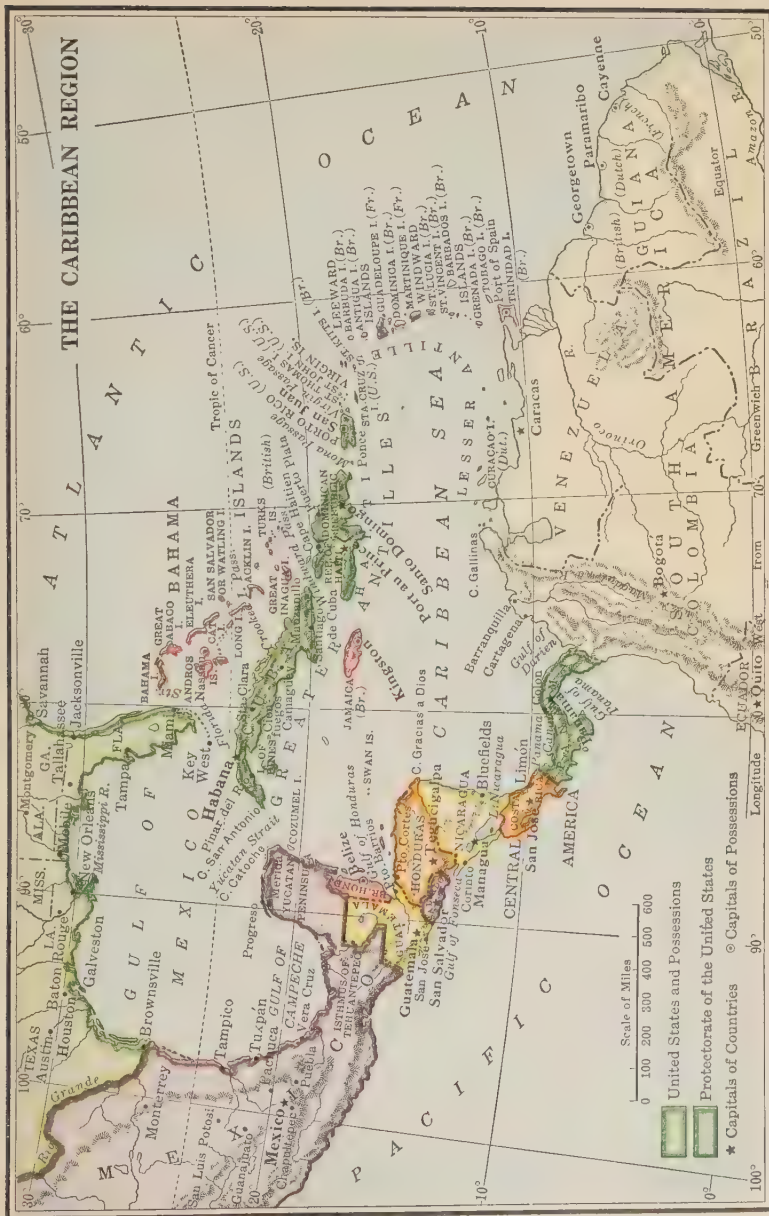
PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Read the Sixteenth Amendment. Argue for or against its provisions.
2. Locate on an outline map of the United States the twelve cities in which the Federal Reserve Banks are located.
3. List the economic changes begun by President Wilson and his first Congress. Are they still in effect?
4. Explain what is meant by the expression "civil war." Why should such a war in Mexico concern the United States?
5. Read James Morgan's treatment of Wilson in *Our Presidents*, pp. 271-286.

2. HOW AMERICA'S FOREIGN RELATIONS CHANGED

The new relations with Europe, which were changing so fast, gave us no difficulties at first. There was a small controversy between the United States and Canada. It was referred to a commission composed of Canadians, Americans, and an English judge. The commission decided in our favor, and nothing further disturbed the peace in that part of North America. Questions about nations to the south of us were handled under the Monroe Doctrine. European countries respected the wishes of the United States and generally kept out of disputes concerning Central and South America.

THE CARIBBEAN REGION



The Troublesome Caribbean Sea. After the United States acquired Porto Rico and the Panama Canal strip, the affairs of the neighboring countries began to concern us.

Some of the small countries in the Caribbean Sea owed money to European people. The Europeans complained that the Central Americans did not pay their debts promptly. Should the United States allow the European countries to go in with troops and collect the money? If so, how long would the troops stay? Would they endanger our possession of Porto Rico and the Canal Zone? President Roosevelt decided to send American troops down to keep order and to collect the tariff duties in countries where disputes arose. Part of the money so collected was used to pay debts, and part was turned over to the Central American country concerned. This plan was used in connection with Santo Domingo and later with Haiti and Nicaragua.

"Isolation" and Arbitration. In general, the United States stood for two things in connection with foreign relations:

We felt far enough away from European affairs so that they did not concern us. This is sometimes called the "policy of isolation."

We liked to settle questions by *arbitration* so far as possible. Two meetings of the nations of the world were held at The Hague in the Netherlands, one in 1899 and one in 1907. The purpose of the meetings was to discover ways of settling disputes between nations without going to war. A sort of court was set up, and the United States sent four cases to it between 1902 and 1913.

By 1913 it became clear that the new inventions, such as the wireless telegraph, were making the world seem smaller. What would be the effect on our isolation? By means of the telegraph we could know of European battles while they were being fought. Would this make a difference in our policy of isolation? Would we be concerned in European quarrels?

The Army and Navy. Even while these questions were in men's minds the regular army of the United States was kept very small. From fifty to a hundred thousand trained soldiers were all that we had, a small fraction of the number kept by European countries.

The American navy was kept more nearly equal to European navies. Presidents Arthur, Cleveland, and Roosevelt had taken an especial interest in it. The Spanish War had given it experience in actual fighting. Thus it was that in 1914 the American navy was about as strong as any in the world except those of England and Germany.

And then there occurred in Europe in 1914 the events that were to make all these facts important and affect the position of the United States before the entire world.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Explain how the Monroe Doctrine kept European countries from sending armies to Central and South American countries.
2. Why did Roosevelt send troops to certain Central American countries to collect tariff duties?
3. Show how the policy of isolation became more and more difficult to maintain after 1900.
4. Explain why the regular army of the United States was kept very small between 1900 and 1914 whereas the navy was kept more nearly equal to European navies.

UNIT IV. THE WORLD WAR AND THE UNITED STATES

In August, 1914, a great war broke out in Europe. It is known in history as the World War, because so many of the countries of the world were engaged in it before it came to a close. The United States got into it in April, 1917. It is with our own part in the war that this section is most concerned.

1. HOW THE WAR STARTED

Declaration of War. In 1914 the various countries in Europe had large armies. They were all suspicious of one another. All were fearful of the outbreak of a war. Hence they had made alliances, or agreements, to help one another in case of conflict. Germany and Austria-Hungary, for example, were allies. France and Russia had an alliance; so also had Great Britain and Japan. Russia and Serbia were friendly. France and Great Britain understood that they would stand by each other in case of need.

In August, 1914, the time of need suddenly came. Some members of a secret society in Serbia planned and carried out the murder of the young man who was to become emperor of Austria. The Austrians deeply resented this, and declared war on Serbia. Two days later, Russia called out her army. Thereupon Germany (Austria's ally) declared war on Russia (Serbia's friend), and soon afterwards on France, and then on Belgium. Great Britain and Japan stepped in on the side of France; a little later Turkey, and still later Bulgaria, went in on the side of Germany and Austria. In a short time the two sides were as follows:

ON SERBIA'S SIDE

Serbia
 • Russia
 France
 Belgium
 Great Britain
 Japan
 Italy (in 1915)

ON AUSTRIA'S SIDE

Austria
 Germany
 Turkey
 Bulgaria (in 1915)

In the size of the armies and the numbers of guns, battleships, and other means of war, this struggle has never been equaled in the history of the world.

American Complaints about England and Germany. Americans scarcely knew what to think about the war. Natives of

all the countries on both sides of the quarrel lived in the United States. There were millions of Germans, especially in the Middle West, and other millions of English everywhere in the country. Interest was keen, but nobody could tell exactly to what extent each side was right or wrong.

Then complaints about England began to appear. England stopped American ships going to Germany, and even to



AN AMERICAN SUBMARINE IN 1926

Denmark and Holland. She seized cargoes of copper, flour, and other products which were thought to be bound for Germany. American mail was opened and read. All this looked very much like those acts of England that had helped to bring on the War of 1812.

The United States had its complaints about Germany also.

Before Belgium entered the war, Germany sent an army into that country on the way to France. Belgium tried to drive the Germans out, and was crushed in the attempt.

Men were sent over here by the German government to prevent our sending supplies to England. They set factories on fire where the goods were being made; they placed bombs in ships which were carrying goods across; they tried to get workmen in the factories to quit work.

Suddenly these things all became of little importance. Germany began to use the submarine to creep up on vessels carrying passengers and supplies, and send them to the bottom of the sea. On May 7, 1915, for example, the *Lusitania*, an English vessel, was sunk off the coast of Ireland. Nearly twelve hundred men, women, and children were cast into the ocean and drowned. One hundred and fourteen of these were Americans. President Wilson kept his temper and tried to get Germany to apologize, to pay damages, and to agree to stop such outrages.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Account for the line-up of the nations at war in 1915. Why did Germany declare war on Belgium?

2. On an outline map of the world, color the countries on Serbia's side one color and those on the side of Austria another color.

3. Compare American complaints about England with those about Germany.

4. Read again on page 600 about the early history of the submarine. What share did it have in bringing the United States into the World War?

2. HOW THE UNITED STATES CAME TO ENTER THE WAR AND HOW WE PREPARED FOR IT

Those who wanted war against Germany said that the purpose of the war had changed. It was no longer a quarrel, they thought, between Austria and Serbia about the murder of a prince: it had become a contest to call a halt to a nation that would use submarines to sink defenseless ships.

Other people were not so sure. Many still disliked England because of the Revolution, and did not wish to fight on her side. Others dreaded a war, with all its cost in money and human suffering.

In the midst of this difference of opinion came the presidential election of 1916. The Democrats renominated President Wilson, while the Republicans chose Charles E. Hughes of New York, a member of the Supreme Court. Wilson was reëlected.

The Year 1917. No sooner was Wilson reëlected than war seemed more probable than ever. Germany announced that she was going to use the submarine to sink ships going to England. Then a German plot against us was discovered and made public. It was a scheme for an alliance with Mexico in case the United States entered the war against Germany. If Mexico helped Germany to win, then Mexico was to have our states of Texas, Arizona, and New Mexico.

This was too much for even so patient a man as President Wilson. He called Congress together and asked for a declaration of war. So patient had he been with Germany, and so well had he explained the purposes of the war, that Congress and most of the people of the country fully agreed with him. On April 6, 1917, the United States declared war on Germany. The vote in the Senate for war was 82 to 6; in the House, 373 to 50.

Why the United States entered the War. The enthusiasm with which Americans threw themselves into the war was one of the most interesting things in all the history of the United States. The people believed that they were clearly right in what they were doing. They felt that they knew *why the United States was entering the war*.

Germany was already actually waging war against the United States by her use of the submarine. During February, 1917, alone, two American ships had been sunk, and others

were staying in port for fear of being struck. In all, two hundred and twenty-six American citizens were drowned by submarine attacks.

Americans feared that if Germany were victorious she would attempt to make up for the cost of the war by an attack on the United States. Many believed that the Germans would bombard our wealthy Atlantic seaboard cities and demand large sums of money.

Another of the reasons for entering the war which President Wilson mentioned in his message to Congress was the action of the German government in sending spies to America to set fire to factories and put bombs in ships which were carrying goods across the ocean.

Raising an Army and Navy. As we remember, the American army before the war was small, and, of course, it lacked the experience which the great European armies had gained since 1914.

The first thing was to find the men. The regular army and the militia were increased. Then conscription laws were passed, by which all men between the ages of eighteen and forty-five were required to turn in their names. Then 2,810,296 men on the lists were drawn by lot, some sooner and some later, and formed into what was called the National Army.

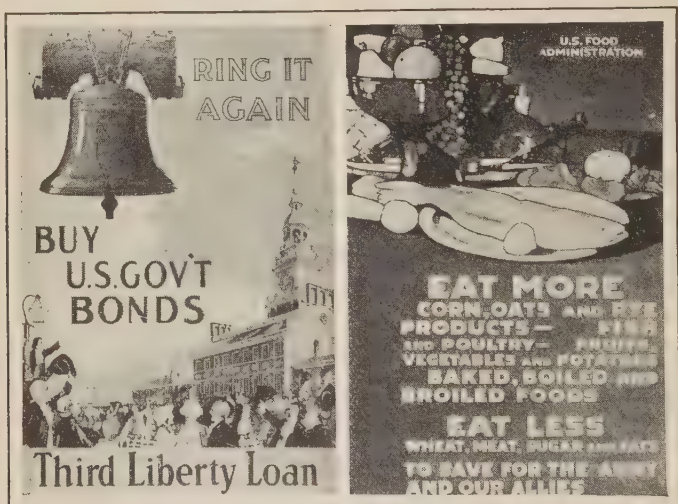
Meanwhile "cantonments" were being built to take care of the soldiers. These were practically small towns containing from one thousand to twelve hundred buildings, with places for about forty thousand men. There were sleeping-quarters, theaters, laundries, hospitals, drill grounds, streets, fire departments; in short, a whole city.¹

Within a few weeks after the declaration of war part of our navy was in Europe ready to help. On this side of the ocean

¹ A government officer who studied the matter said that enough lumber was used for the cantonments to make a sidewalk extending round the earth at the equator four times.

new officers were trained, fresh sailors were enlisted, and plans made for a huge fleet of new vessels of all kinds.

With the help of some English vessels our navy took care of getting the men across to Europe. At first a few regular troops were sent over under General John J. Pershing, who was to command all American soldiers abroad. As soon as the men could be trained, others were sent over — small



TWO WORLD-WAR POSTERS

numbers at first, and then more and more. In all, two million men were carried across, together with food, clothes, arms, and all the many things needed for an army. Besides these things the United States sent equipment for the building of railroads and training camps, for the French had all they could do to attend to the needs of their own soldiers.

Raising Money to pay the Bills. The "Liberty Loans" and new taxes provided the money for all these great undertakings. It was here that the wealth of the United States became important.

Taxes were put on everything that can be imagined; on goods sold at a soda-water counter, for example; on admission to all theaters, moving-picture shows, and ball games; on railroad tickets and Pullman-car seats; and on the profits of stores and shops and factories. Stamps were sold by the government, to be pasted on legal documents.

More unusual were the five great Liberty Loan campaigns. Five times the government borrowed money from the people of the country — not from the wealthy only, but from nearly everybody. The farmer on the back roads of New England, the city dweller, the Southern lumberman, the people of the plains and mountains and of the Pacific coast, all had a hand in these huge campaigns. The size of the loans may be judged by the following:

NUMBER OF THE LOAN	AMOUNT OF LOAN	NUMBER OF PEOPLE LENDING
First Liberty Loan	\$2,000,000,000	4,000,000
Second Liberty Loan	3,808,766,150	9,400,000
Third Liberty Loan	4,176,516,850	18,376,815
Fourth Liberty Loan	6,992,927,100	22,777,680
Victory Loan	4,498,312,650	11,803,895

Everybody's support was needed, for the cost of the war was greater than that of any other war in the world's history. Over a period of twenty-five months (from April, 1917, to April, 1919) the United States spent money at the rate of more than a million dollars an hour. In addition, it lent money to the other opponents of Germany at the rate of nearly half a million dollars an hour.¹

¹ The following true story will illustrate how much interested all the people were in the success of the Liberty Loans:

A man was speaking before a crowd of people in a small town near the White Mountains of New Hampshire. He was urging the citizens of the town to lend the government every dollar that they could spare. In the middle of the audience was a group of woodcutters, perhaps fifteen or twenty of them, rough-appearing men who had been for months in the woods, without so much as visiting even the nearest village. The woodcutters sat silent while the speaking was going on, showing

Other Help for Winning the War. Food for the soldiers and sailors was obtained through the efforts of men, women, and children. Farmers planted larger crops. People who had never cultivated a garden had one now. Children had less sugar on their cereal in the morning, so that more might be sent to the army.

The women of the country were as busy as the men. Thousands served as nurses, or acted as clerks and stenographers in Washington and elsewhere. Millions made sweaters and socks and bandages for the Red Cross.¹

The laboring men took as great a part in the war as the soldiers, the farmers, and the women. They built the cantonments and the ships, the automobiles and airplanes and submarines, and ran the trains on the railroads. One of the favorite pictures during the war was that of a workman pulling some money out of his pocket for a Liberty Loan. As he did so, he remarked, "Sure, let's finish the job!"

The benefits of the schools were seen in the way in which everybody read about the war. Each day the government sent out a small circular of information. The newspapers were full of the war. More people knew about the purposes and incidents of the conflict, and more people had a real share in it, than had ever been the case in any war since time began. All this would have been impossible without the schools.

no sign of interest in what was being said; in fact, the speaker was afraid that perhaps the lumbermen might be noisy or boisterous and disturb the meeting, but no such thing happened.

Finally the speaking came to an end, and there was a short silence. Then the leader of the lumbermen stood up and said that the woodcutters wanted to help the United States to win the war, and that they had brought their money with them to the meeting. Thereupon he pulled out of his pocket a roll of bills which was so big that it did not seem possible that any pocket could hold it! You will have to imagine the enthusiasm which the lumbermen aroused by their action.

¹ The American Red Cross was a society founded by Miss Clara Barton in 1881. It took care of many of the sick and wounded during the war and relieved suffering in many parts of Europe.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Show why the year 1917 is so important in American history.
2. Explain the meaning of the following: regular army, militia, conscription laws, national army, cantonments.
3. Newton D. Baker, then Secretary of War, said, "This isn't one man's war, or several men's war, or an army's war, but it is a war of *all* the people of the United States." Explain what he meant by this statement.
4. Give an account of how money was raised to pay the huge bills connected with the war.
5. Show the importance of the work of people other than soldiers and sailors in the winning of the war.
6. Point out the part the schools had in the winning of the war.

3. WHAT OUR ARMY DID IN FRANCE

The Situation in Europe in 1917. When the United States declared war against Germany, who were fighting on the two sides over there? On the side of Germany were Austria, Turkey, and Bulgaria. Opposed to them were Great Britain, France, and Belgium on the west, Italy on the south, and Russia on the east. Many other nations in other parts of the world had also declared war on Germany, but those named here were most important.

In the year 1917 several things occurred which gave Germany great hopes of winning the war:

Russia, on the east, collapsed and gave up fighting.

Italy, on the south, was pushed back by the Austrians and a few Germans and almost beaten.

Germany's submarines had been so successful that British ships were being sunk in great numbers. Both Great Britain and France feared that they could not keep up the war much longer.

Germany's Great Drives. The collapse of Russia gave Germany all the more troops to use against Great Britain and France. Moreover, Germany saw that the United States would soon be throwing a huge army into the conflict. Why not, then, take the free troops from the Russian border and hurl them against England and France before the United States



THE WESTERN FRONT IN THE WORLD WAR

got over? It would take the Americans a year to raise their army, drill it, send it over, and begin to fight. What might not be done in that year?

In March, 1918, the Germans made a smashing attack fifty miles wide along the Western Front. All Europe — all the world, in fact — either feared or hoped that the Germans would win before American help could come. In the meantime what was the United States doing?

Doing the "Impossible." The United States was doing the seemingly impossible, getting the army ready before anybody thought it could be done. Once the men were landed in France, they were trained for a month or two and then placed in some part of the lines where fighting was least severe.

Such careful training was necessary, because the war was so much more complicated than war had ever been before.



AMERICAN TROOPS MARCHING THROUGH A FRENCH TOWN

Not only was it fought under the sea with submarines, but far up in the sky with airplanes as well. The automobile enabled officers to send their men farther and faster than ever. The telephone and the telegraph made it possible to keep track of great numbers of men scattered over a large area. Machine guns had been made which fired hundreds of bullets in the time that Grant and Lee took to fire one. Chemists had made bombs which could be thrown among enemy troops and explode, sending off a poisonous gas. The gas spread and injured everybody around. All these things

the American troops had to know about or they would have been quickly crushed by the enemy.

At the Fighting Front. By April, 1918, a considerable number of American troops were ready for work, and in May they pushed back some Germans at Cantigny. In June they helped to stop a German advance at Belleau Wood. In July the Germans made a great drive in the Marne valley near Château-Thierry, but were held back by the French and Americans. Thereupon the United States and the "Allies" (as the opponents of Germany were called) decided upon a new step. It was to turn the tables and attack the enemy. In this attack the American troops were to have an important part. Three days after the German drive, the Allies (especially the French) and the Americans attacked the Germans, pushing them back toward Soissons after a hard fight.

The Famous Salient at St. Mihiel. The next attack by the Americans was on a larger scale. Southeast of Château-Thierry the Germans had pushed back the Allies, making a wedge-shaped dent (the military men call such a dent a salient — see the map on page 632). The American army was placed on the right side of the wedge and told to drive it in. Under cover of the night six hundred thousand men were gathered, with all the equipment for modern warfare — heavy artillery, machine guns, airplanes, and automobiles plated with steel and armed with light artillery. A terrific rain of artillery shells was first dropped on the enemy line. Then at five o'clock on the morning of September 12 (1918) the Americans rushed on the Germans and drove them back. The great test had been met.

The Great Meuse-Argonne Offensive ; Collapse of the Germans. Not far northwest of St. Mihiel was a strong enemy position in the Argonne Forest, in the Meuse valley. One million two hundred thousand troops were gathered opposite this region during late September, and then another drive began.

For more than a month the Americans stubbornly and bravely pushed the Germans back, the Germans resisting just as bravely and stubbornly. So bitter was the fighting, and so great the number of men on the field, that the soldiers of the United States used more ammunition than the Northern army fired during the entire four years of the Civil War.

The continuous hammering which the Germans were receiving was becoming harder than they could bear. Six million



AMERICAN SOLDIERS AT THE FIGHTING FRONT

men and boys of Germany had been killed or wounded. Her allies, Turkey and Austria, were giving up. Germany was a beaten country. The ruler of Germany, Emperor William the Second, left for Holland, and his defeated people asked for peace. It was November 11, 1918, when the fighting was stopped, and a world that was well tired of war gave itself up to singing, ringing bells, cheering, and being happy.

War's Wreck. Indeed, the world needed whatever of happiness it might get, for now the cost must be reckoned. One hundred and eighty billions of dollars had been spent, and an

equal amount of property battered to pieces by artillery, sunk in the sea by submarines, and otherwise lost through the war. Thirteen millions of men lay dead, more than twice the number killed in all the wars in the whole world during the hundred years from 1800 to 1900. Other millions of wounded men — blind, crippled, and sick — were scattered over all the countries that had been at war.

With such conditions staring them in the face, the Allies were not inclined to be very gentle with Germany in telling her what she must do after her surrender. Three things she was compelled to do at once:

Take back home all her troops which were still in camp in France, Belgium, and other countries.

Allow the allied troops to control most of the valley of the German river Rhine.

Give up her submarines and seventy-four war vessels to the Allies.

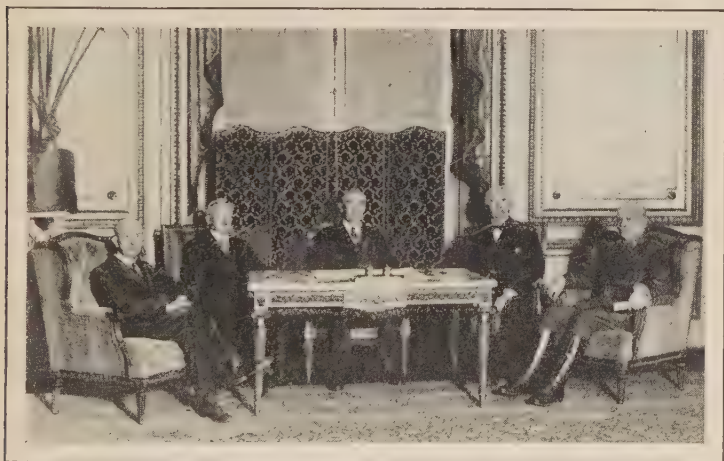
The Conference at Paris. While these simple things were being done, the Allies were preparing to meet at Paris and settle many other questions which the war had raised. Each of the allied nations sent its representatives to the meeting. The United States was represented by President Wilson and four other leading men.¹ England's rights were looked out for by Lloyd George, who held the office of "premier" or prime minister (which is much like that of our president). Premier Clemenceau of France and Premier Orlando of Italy were the other two most prominent men. In all there were seventy delegates from thirty-two countries, besides hundreds of advisers, newspaper men, and others. President Wilson was perhaps the leading man of the conference, because he had suggested most of the questions to be talked about and had proposed

¹ Robert Lansing, Secretary of State; Henry White, who had for a long time been an American ambassador in Europe; Edward M. House, who knew much about the causes of the war; and General Tasker H. Bliss, who was especially acquainted with military affairs.

answers to most of the questions. The seventy delegates worked hard from January to June, 1919, and at last the following things were decided upon:

In previous wars Germany and Austria had seized parts of countries which they had defeated. These were to be returned: some to France, some to Italy, and some to other nations.

In several sections of Europe there were parts of countries which wished to be free so that they might govern themselves.



AMERICAN REPRESENTATIVES IN THE PEACE CONFERENCE AT PARIS AT THE
CLOSE OF THE WORLD WAR

This was accomplished by setting up several new nations, such as Poland, Czechoslovakia, Jugoslavia, and Finland.

Germany was declared to be to blame for the war. She was to pay money to the Allies for the damage she had done and also to give coal and other materials to make up for things she had taken during the war.

There was planned what we know as the League of Nations. This is an organization, or congress, made up of representatives from nearly all the nations of the world. It meets in Switzerland, and sees that the terms of the peace

treaty are carried out, but its main purpose is to try to settle international quarrels without war.

When President Wilson came back from Paris with a copy of the treaty between the Allies and Germany, he gave it to the Senate. The Senate debated for many months, but there were so many disagreements that nothing was done. Later, the United States made a separate treaty with Germany.

The Election of 1920. The presidential election of 1920 occurred just after the Senate had finished its debate on the treaty. The Democrats nominated James M. Cox; the Republicans, Warren G. Harding. Both candidates were from Ohio. The Democrats wished to have the United States enter the League of Nations; the Republicans thought that "an international association" could do the things which the League was doing and do them better. Harding was chosen president, but he died in 1923, after being in office two years and five months, and the vice president, Calvin Coolidge, succeeded him.¹

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Show on what Germany built her hopes of winning the war in the summer of 1917.
2. Make a list of the things that the American soldiers in the World War had to know about and do that the soldiers in the Civil War knew nothing about.
3. Tell the story of the war from April, 1918, to November of the same year.
4. Point out the changes in the map of Europe as a result of the World War.
5. Turn to the Constitution. Find and read the part that relates to treaties.

¹ Warren G. Harding was the seventh president born in Ohio. Harding had served in the senate of Ohio and in the United States Senate.

Calvin Coolidge was born in Vermont, but lived most of his life in Massachusetts. He held many offices in the latter state, being governor in 1919-1920.

UNIT V. AFTER THE WORLD WAR

As soon as the war was over, Europe and the United States began to think of what could be done to recover from its awful effects. This was more difficult for Europe than it was for the United States. Since 1918 the questions and problems arising out of the war have been uppermost in the minds of both Europeans and Americans.

1. HOW EUROPE ATTEMPTED TO RECOVER FROM THE WAR

Returning to Peaceful Activities. Europe was in a mournful condition at the close of the war. Millions of men were dead. Cripples, sick men, blind men, and hungry men, women, and children were to be found in every village and town. Buildings were destroyed where the fighting had taken place. The fields were torn up, and crops were small or destroyed completely. Huge national debts had been piled up, and taxes were so heavy that millions of people were discouraged. It was no easy task for the nations of Europe to turn to peaceful work in the face of such sorrows and discouragements. But it had to be done. Towns and cities were slowly rebuilt, food was grown, highways were repaired, and the people again went about their daily work.

The new nations set up their governments, elected their officers, and started to make their national history. Several of the older countries changed their form of government. The Czar of Russia was gone; the Emperor of Germany was gone; and these and other countries started more or less popular governments in which the people elect their public officers.

Founding the League of Nations. On January 1, 1920, the League of Nations was actually started. Before the close of 1921 it had fifty-one members. The meetings of the League are held in Geneva, Switzerland.

Like the establishment of the American Republic, the founding of the League is an experiment, but it has already met and solved many international difficulties. An important part of the work of the League is the chance it gives representatives of the different nations of the world to get together and become acquainted. The League is composed of a Council and an Assembly. These meet at regular times, just as our Congress does, and talk over things that concern the different countries which belong to the League. Never before has such a thing been tried. Never before have the nations of the world sat down together to study their problems in a fair-minded way. If the experiment works well, we ourselves may see the most important progress ever made during the world's history in the direction of world peace, and especially peace in Europe.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Give a short floor talk on the subject "Conditions in Europe at the Close of the World War."
2. Debate the question "*Resolved*, That the United States should have joined the League of Nations in 1920."
3. Make a list of the nations of the world now in the League.

2. WHAT HAPPENED IN THE UNITED STATES JUST AFTER THE WAR CLOSED?

Changing from War Activities to Peace Activities. Recovering from the war was much easier in the United States than it was in Europe. None of our cities had been destroyed, and not nearly so many of our men had been killed and wounded. But there were many difficult things to be done, nevertheless.



A FRENCH VILLAGE AFTER THE DEVASTATION CAUSED BY THE WORLD WAR



A MEETING OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS AT GENEVA, IN SWITZERLAND

When the war came to an end, the United States was sending soldiers across to France as rapidly as possible, so that 2,000,000 were already over there. All these men had to be brought home. There were 2,250,000 other soldiers and sailors who were not in France. These also had to be sent to their homes. All of them had to go back to their regular duties. Many of them could not immediately find new places; hence there was a great deal of unemployment, and many families suffered severely.

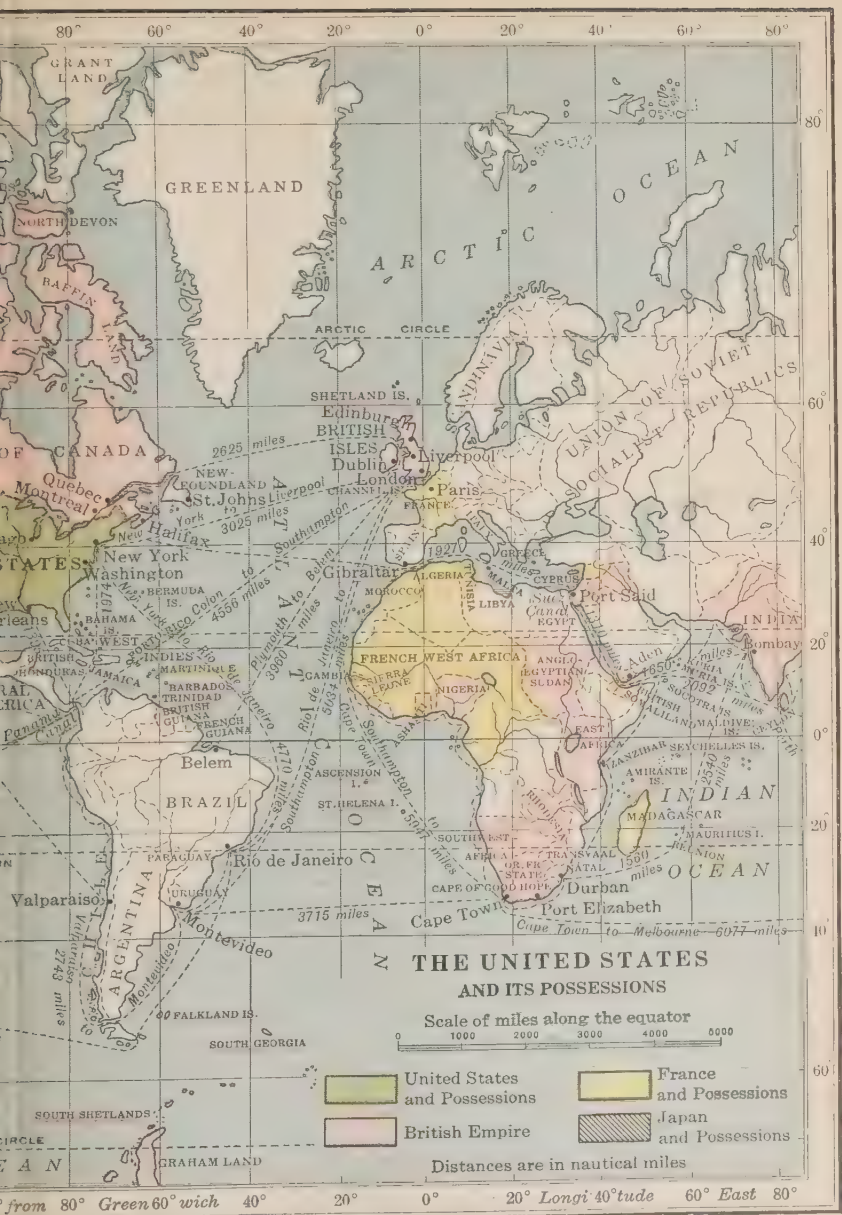
Still more important were the men who were sick or had been wounded in the war. Every effort was made to cure the sick and heal the wounded. In cases where men were crippled by injuries, they were taught trades in government schools, so that they might be able to earn their living after their course of training. Nineteen of the states gave cash "bonuses" to all their citizens who went into the army or navy. These payments averaged several hundred dollars, and even ran as high as \$600 per soldier. In 1924 the United States Congress also passed a bonus law. The total cost of this cannot be exactly told, but it is estimated at two and a half to three billion dollars.

Another important thing that had to be done soon after the war ceased was to return the railroads to their owners. During the war the government had controlled the railroads of the entire country. On March 1, 1920, this was all changed by an act of Congress. The railroads were put back into the hands of the companies that owned them, and the transportation of troops and war materials stopped.

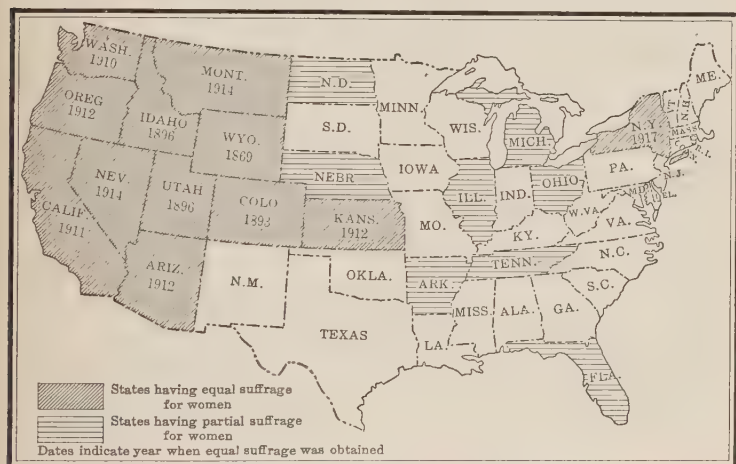
Amending the Constitution. After the World War the Constitution was amended in important ways. Two new amendments went into effect in 1921: one was about intoxicating liquor; the other, about women's suffrage.

For many years the use of intoxicating liquor had been opposed by the members of many churches and by many

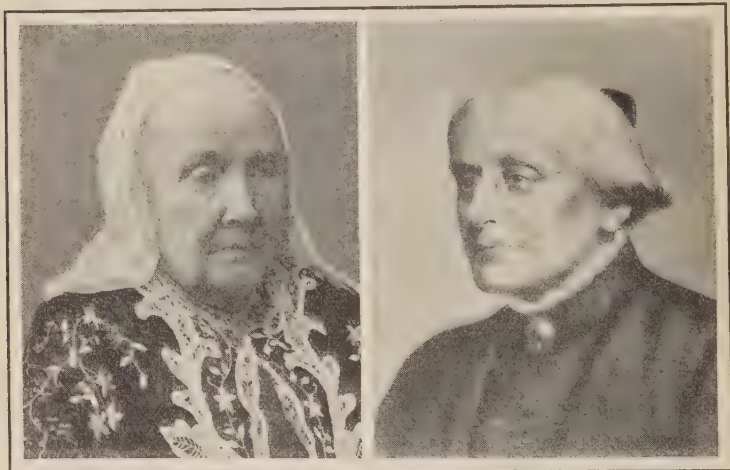




temperance societies. The public schools had long taught the evils of intemperance. Ever since the Civil War, and even before, several of the states had forbidden the manufacture or sale of intoxicating liquors within their boundaries. The World War greatly helped the prohibition movement. It seemed dangerous, in the first place, to allow armed men to drink liquors. In the next place, farmers (and others) brought forward this objection. Why should they make great efforts to



suffrage movement dates back many decades. In 1848 the first national women's rights convention was held in Seneca Falls, New York. Lucretia Mott, Martha C. Wright, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, and Mary Ann McClintock were leaders in this convention. The Declaration of Rights which was set forth by the Seneca Falls convention soon attracted other noted leaders to the cause of equal suffrage. Among



JULIA WARD HOWE

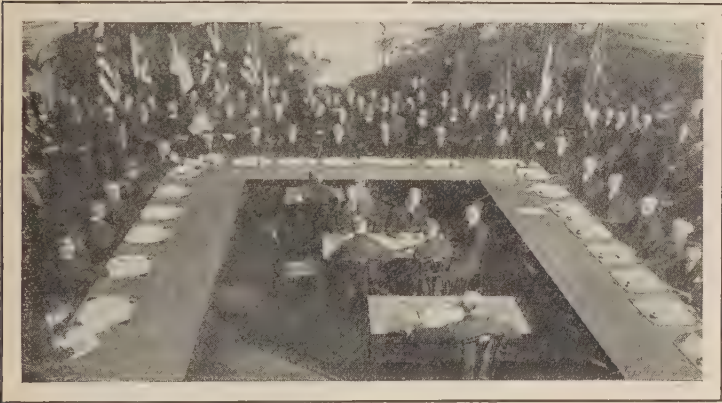
SUSAN B. ANTHONY

Two early leaders in the campaign which led to the success of the women's suffrage movement

these were Margaret Fuller, Julia Ward Howe, Lucy Stone, Susan B. Anthony, and many other women less well known.

As early as 1869 Wyoming gave women complete suffrage, and by 1917 eleven other states had done the same. By 1919 the cause had gained so many friends that its leaders were able to persuade Congress to adopt an amendment giving women the right to vote throughout the United States. In a little over a year enough states agreed to the amendment, so that it went into effect on August 26, 1920.

Closing the World War. When two nations go to war, they generally tell the world what they are going to do by means of a statement known as a "declaration of war." When the war ends, some sort of statement is usually made by the governments concerned. At the close of the World War, President Wilson and Congress were unable to agree on the treaty, and so no statement was made about the ending of the contest. When President Harding came in, Congress passed



THE WASHINGTON DISARMAMENT CONFERENCE HELD AT THE OPENING OF
PRESIDENT HARDING'S ADMINISTRATION

a resolution declaring that the war was ended. Later in the same year (1921) a treaty was made with Germany, and another with Austria. The treaties pointed out the particular parts of the Treaty of Paris (or of Versailles, as it is often called) to which the United States would agree.

Steps in the Direction of World Peace. The mere closing of the war, however, did not satisfy the people of the United States. They had hoped that the war would result in some plan for making future wars less likely. A large number of the people favored joining the League of Nations. Furthermore, the Republican party in 1920 had said that it favored

some kind of international association which would help to bring peace to the world. For these and other reasons President Harding called a meeting in Washington on November 12, 1921. The countries represented were the United States, Belgium, the British Empire, China, France, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, and Portugal.

When the conference met, Charles E. Hughes, Secretary of State in President Harding's cabinet, surprised everybody by



PRESIDENT WARREN G. HARDING

PRESIDENT CALVIN COOLIDGE

making an unexpected proposal. He said that the United States would destroy many warships which were either built or being built if England and Japan would do the same. He also suggested that the chief nations of the world agree to build no more large warships for ten years. After some discussion, the proposals of Secretary Hughes were accepted.

Another step in the direction of world peace was the establishment of a World Court to try cases where nations have disputes which they wish to have settled through a trial

before judges rather than by war or by some other means. The Court was started by the League of Nations, but the plan was drawn up by a committee of men from various countries. Elihu Root of the United States was one of them. The Court started in 1922, with a body of fifteen judges, of whom John Bassett Moore, an American, was one. Both President Harding and, later, President Coolidge wished the United States to join the other countries of the world in supporting the Court. Both Republicans and Democrats promised in 1924 to take such a step. But a few members of the Senate were so bitterly opposed that no action was taken until 1926, when finally the United States agreed to become a member of the Court.¹

In 1924 came another presidential election. The Republicans nominated Calvin Coolidge, who had been president since Harding died in 1923. The Democrats nominated John W. Davis of West Virginia, who had been ambassador from the United States to Great Britain. Dissatisfied members of both parties united to form the Progressive party, and nominated Robert M. La Follette, United States Senator from Wisconsin. The Republicans opposed the League, but favored the Court; the Democrats declared their belief in both; the Progressives did not say exactly what their position was on the League and the Court, but made it clear that they favored plans for making war less likely. Mr. Coolidge was elected, and began his new term on March 4, 1925.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Show what had to be done in the United States in order to change from war to peace.
2. Tell what was done by the states and by the United States for those who took part in the World War.

¹ The United States, however, added some "reservations," or conditions, which the other nations must agree to before we join.

3. Read the Eighteenth and Nineteenth amendments to the Constitution (see Appendix B). Show how the Nineteenth Amendment differs from the Fifteenth.

4. Show in what respects the League of Nations, the Washington Conference, and the World Court aided or might aid the cause of world peace.

5. Make a list of the presidents who have died in office. Who was the successor of each?

3. SOME QUESTIONS AND CONDITIONS ARISING OUT OF THE WAR

Three Important Questions. Among the questions which came up as soon as the World War had ended was the old question of the protective tariff. Many manufacturers feared that Germany would send a flood of cheaply made goods into the United States, and they demanded a tariff wall to keep such goods out. Many farmers thought they would be benefited by a high tariff, and urged a new law. The result was the tariff act of 1922, one of the highest in American history.

Another important question that arose during and after the war was about the cost of running the government. During the war the cost was of course very great. After peace was declared, Presidents Harding and Coolidge made great efforts to economize. Every possible saving was made, unnecessary employees were dropped, and government expenses were decreased wherever practicable. By a law of 1921 called the Budget Act the president has estimates made out each year of the probable income and expense of each department of the government. Under his direction the estimate of expense is put as low as possible, and then he attempts to keep Congress and all government officers down to this level of cost. Partly as a result of this work, taxes were greatly lowered by 1925, and five billion dollars of the public debt had been paid.

Still another question brought up by the war was the reduction of immigration. Many of the European nations were in serious trouble, with high taxes, too little food, and men out of work. It was feared in the United States that swarms of these people would come over to this country — too many of them to be taken care of. A law was passed in 1924 which put the total number that could come in each year at about 160,000. This is but a small fraction of the numbers of immigrants that came in annually before the World War — (there had been 1,200,000 in 1914, for example.)

But the act of Congress did more than merely cut down the number of immigrants who could come in. We remember that after 1880 and especially after 1890 a great many more immigrants came from Italy, Russia, and Austria than had come before. And a smaller proportion of English, Germans, Swedes, and Norwegians were coming over. Under the new law each country is allowed to send over only a certain number of immigrants, called a quota. The quota for Italy, Russia, and Austria was small and that for England, Germany, and other north-European countries was large.¹

Some Bad Conditions resulting from the War. Both workmen and employers found themselves badly off in the years immediately after the World War. Business was bad during 1920 and 1921, so that employers did not know whether they were going to make profits or not. The workmen were also in difficulties. The cost of food, clothing, and other

¹ The quota is determined as follows: the number of immigrants to be allowed to enter each year from each country is to be 2 per cent of the number of natives of that country who were in the United States in 1890. A few figures will show how greatly the number of south-European immigrants is cut down:

COUNTRY	ADMITTED IN 1910	QUOTA UNDER THE LAW OF 1924
Austria	258,737	3,854
Italy	215,537	2,248
Russia	186,797	758

things increased even after peace was declared. If his wages were cut down, or if they did not go up as the cost of living advanced, the workman saw that he would be in distress. Over the question of wages, therefore, and some other matters connected with labor, there occurred a number of great strikes during 1919-1923. Several of these took a long time for settlement, they cost both sides a great deal of money, and caused worry, trouble, and expense to the general public.

The situation of the American farmer was probably worse after the war than that of the manufacturer and the industrial worker. Even in good times, such as those of 1919, the average farmer did not make much money. Then came the crash in 1920. The farmers planted large crops in the spring of that year, paying high prices for their machinery and seeds, as well as for their hired labor. They expected good prices for their crops; but before harvest time came round there was an unusual drop in the selling price of farm products. Indeed, so great was the drop that the farmers, as a class, received less for their crops than it cost to plant and take care of them. Many farmers were unable to pay their bills, or even to pay interest on money they had borrowed at banks or elsewhere to spend on producing their crops.

The causes of the misfortune varied from state to state, but it seems certain that many of them were to be found in the results of the war. The wages which the farmer had to pay his help grew higher and higher, because wages in all industries were going up. The cost of his tools, his taxes, and the freight rates which he paid when he sent his crop to market were all increasing. Moreover, he could not find the usual number of European buyers for his crops. Millions of Europeans had died during the war, and those who were left alive were too poor to buy as much as they did before.

From all the farming states of the Union came the demand

that Congress do something for the farmer. And so there arose in 1921 a group of members of Congress called the agricultural bloc. It was composed mainly of men from the Southern and Western states, where agriculture was the chief business. At their suggestion a number of laws were passed which were intended to help the farmers of the country. Conditions were better in 1923, and improved again in 1924, but the condition of agriculture is still far from satisfactory.

Another bad condition which has arisen during the past few years, one which has seriously disturbed the law-abiding people of America, is the apparently increasing disrespect for law. Accounts of robberies and murders appear in nearly every newspaper. Many drivers of automobiles recklessly break the traffic rules. Both state and United States laws are disregarded as if it were of no importance whether they were obeyed or broken. These conditions are a cause of great concern to all true American citizens, for they know that if the people fail to have respect for its laws, no country can continue to advance and to produce men like Franklin, Washington, Hamilton, Jefferson, Jackson, Lincoln, Cleveland, Roosevelt, and Wilson.

PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Show what was done at the close of the war to prevent a flood of cheap goods from entering the United States, as was the case after the War of 1812.
2. Mention some results of the Budget Act of 1921. Find out to what extent the budget system is used in your own school district, township, county, city, or state.
3. Give a floor talk on the subject "The Effects of the World War on the American Farmer."
4. Watch the newspapers for a week or so for specific cases of law violations. Report your findings to the class.

BEFORE LEAVING DIVISION EIGHT

I. Debate one or more of the following subjects :

1. *Resolved*, That the government should have prevented the formation of the great combinations of capital that occurred between 1900 and 1914.
2. *Resolved*, That the United States had sufficient reasons for declaring war on Mexico during Wilson's first administration.
3. *Resolved*, That if individuals are conscripted to fight in a war, industry and capital and labor ought to be conscripted to serve.
4. *Resolved*, That a low tariff law would benefit more people in the United States than a high one such as the Act of 1922.

II. Prepare the following for your notebook :

1. A *Hall of Fame* for Division Eight. Let this be made in the same manner that *Halls* for the other divisions have been made.
2. A statement of about two hundred words in length concerning each of the following : Theodore Roosevelt, Woodrow Wilson, William Jennings Bryan, Robert M. La Follette.
3. A chart or table of the presidents since 1865 in order. With each give the dates of the beginning and end of his administration, his home state, his party, and the vice president.
4. Pictures of persons and scenes prominent in the history of our country since 1900. Collect these from papers and magazines while you are studying this division.

III. Make a map, as follows :

1. Title : Continental United States in 1925.
2. Use an outline map of the present United States.
3. Name each of the forty-eight states ; the chief rivers, mountains, lakes, gulfs, and bays ; the capital of each state ; and the largest twenty cities in the United States.

IV. Be able to do the following things :

1. Explain what is meant by these words and expressions : child labor, big business, capital, civil service, conservation, cor-

poration, strike, interstate commerce, natural resources, organized labor, combinations, rebating, game preserve, initiative, referendum, S O S, Federal Reserve Banks, policy of isolation, arbitration, alliance, cantonments, Liberty Loans, salient. Most of these have been used in Division Eight.

2. Identify, in a sentence or two, William H. Taft, Marconi, the Wright brothers, John J. Pershing, General Foch, Warren G. Harding, Lloyd George, Clemenceau, Orlando, Calvin Coolidge.
3. Explain why the following dates and events are of importance in American history :
 - a. 1914, Panama Canal completed.
 - b. 1915, sinking of the *Lusitania*.
 - c. April 6, 1917, declaration of war with Germany.
 - d. November 11, 1918, the Armistice, closing the war.
 - e. 1921, treaty of peace between the United States and Germany.
 - f. 1921-1922, disarmament conference at Washington.
 - g. 1924, army airmen of the United States make the first flight around the world.
4. Give a floor talk on the following topics, or write a brief discussion of them :
 - a. Changes in Industry about 1900.
 - b. The Roosevelt Problems.
 - c. Panama Canal.
 - d. Constitutional Amendments since 1912.
 - e. Woodrow Wilson's Economic Reforms.
 - f. Why the United States declared War on Germany.
 - g. Winning the War.
 - h. Recovering from the War.
 - i. Recent Progress in Aviation.

A BACKWARD LOOK

And now let us recall what we started to do in this study of the history of our country. In the Foreword of this book you read the following :

If we could have lived from 1492 to the present day and could have watched the growth of the United States, we should have seen a marvelous story unfold before our eyes.

In 1492 we should have seen the Atlantic shore with no cities or dwellings to break the forest which bordered it. We should have seen three small ship-loads of men sail toward it, and many an expedition explore it. Then we should have seen people come to live on these shores ; and we should have watched them build their houses, till the soil, push back the Indians, cut down the forests, move westward to the interior, fight wars for their country, found cities, cut roads through the woods and across the plains, throw bridges over the great rivers, climb the Western mountains, run railways to the Pacific coast, and start schools and factories and churches and newspapers. And we should have watched our grandfathers and our fathers and at last ourselves come into the story and become a part of American history.

In the following pages we shall watch the stream of events from the time when America was a great continent covered with trees and grassy plains, and inhabited by Indians, to the time when we ourselves became a part of the United States and began to have a share in its history.

And now we actually *have become* part of the United States, and *do share in its history*. Nobody knows just what will be written on the next page of American history : neither the President, nor Congress, nor any great writer, inventor, or successful man of business. But this we do know : the next page will contain an account of the acts of our own times — of us, who are now, for the first time, taking our part in American history.

DO THY PART HERE IN THE LIVING DAY,
AS DID THE GREAT WHO MADE OLD DAYS IMMORTAL !

APPENDIX A

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE ¹

IN CONGRESS, JULY 4, 1776

A DECLARATION BY THE REPRESENTATIVES OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, IN CONGRESS ASSEMBLED

WHEN, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident : — That all men are created equal ; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights ; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed ; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate, that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes ; and accordingly all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies ; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the

¹ The Declaration was adopted July 4, 1776, and was signed by most of the members representing the thirteen states August 2, 1776. John Hancock, whose name appears first among the signers, was president of the Congress.

establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained ; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature — a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected, whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise ; the State remaining, in the mean time, exposed to all the dangers of invasions from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States ; for that purpose obstructing the laws for the naturalization of foreigners ; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has endeavored to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitutions, and unacknowledged by our laws ; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation :

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us ;

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States ;

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world ;

For imposing taxes on us without our consent ;

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury ;

For transporting us beyond seas, to be tried for pretended offences ;

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies;

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments;

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burned our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrection among us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms; our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in our attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity; and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace friends.

We, therefore, the Representatives of the United States of America, in General Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these united Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought

to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And, for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

JOHN HANCOCK

BUTTON GWINNETT, Ga.	GEO. TAYLOR, Pa.
LYMAN HALL, Ga.	JAMES WILSON, Pa.
GEO. WALTON, Ga.	GEO. ROSS, Pa.
WM. HOOPER, N. C.	CÆSAR RODNEY, Del.
JOSEPH HEWES, N. C.	GEO. READ, Del.
JOHN PENN, N. C.	THO. M'KEAN, Del.
EDWARD RUTLEDGE, S. C.	WM. FLOYD, N.Y.
THOS. HEYWARD, Jr., S. C.	PHIL. LIVINGSTON, N.Y.
THOMAS LYNCH, Jr., S. C.	FRANS. LEWIS, N.Y.
ARTHUR MIDDLETON, S. C.	LEWIS MORRIS, N.Y.
SAMUEL CHASE, Md.	RICHD. STOCKTON, N. J.
WM. PACA, Md.	JNO. WITHERSPOON, N. J.
THOS. STONE, Md.	FRAS. HOPKINSON, N. J.
CHARLES CARROLL OF CARROLL- TON, Md.	JOHN HART, N. J.
GEORGE WYTHE, Va.	ABRA. CLARK, N. J.
RICHARD HENRY LEE, Va.	JOSIAH BARTLETT, N. H.
TH. JEFFERSON, Va.	WM. WHIPPLE, N. H.
BENJ. HARRISON, Va.	SAML. ADAMS, Mass.
THOS. NELSON, Jr., Va.	JOHN ADAMS, Mass.
FRANCIS LIGHTFOOT LEE, Va.	ROBT. TREAT PAINE, Mass.
CARTER BRAXTON, Va.	ELBRIDGE GERRY, Mass.
ROBT. MORRIS, Pa.	STEP. HOPKINS, R. I.
BENJAMIN RUSH, Pa.	WILLIAM ELLERY, R. I.
BENJA. FRANKLIN, Pa.	ROGER SHERMAN, Conn.
JOHN MORTON, Pa.	SAM'EL. HUNTINGTON, Conn.
GEO. CLYMER, Pa.	WM. WILLIAMS, Conn.
JAS. SMITH, Pa.	OLIVER WOLCOTT, Conn.
	MATTHEW THORNTON, N. H.

Resolved, That copies of the Declaration be sent to the several assemblies, conventions, and committees, or councils of safety, and to the several commanding officers of the continental troops; that it be proclaimed in each of the United States, at the head of the army.

APPENDIX B

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

PREAMBLE

WE, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this CONSTITUTION for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I. LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT

SECTION 1. CONGRESS.

All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.¹

SECTION 2. HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

Election of Members. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

Qualifications. No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Apportionment. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers,² which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons.³ The actual

¹ The term of each Congress is two years. It assembles on the first Monday in December and "expires at noon of the fourth of March next succeeding the beginning of its second regular session, when a new Congress begins."

² The apportionment under the census of 1920 is one representative for every 242,267 persons.

³ The phrase "other persons" refers to slaves. The word "slave" nowhere appears in the Constitution. This paragraph has been amended (Amendments XIII and XIV) and is no longer in force.

enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative: and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three; Massachusetts, eight; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, one; Connecticut, five; New York, six; New Jersey, four; Pennsylvania, eight; Delaware, one; Maryland, six; Virginia, ten; North Carolina, five; South Carolina, five; and Georgia, three.

Vacancies. When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority¹ thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

Officers. Impeachment. The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker² and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION 3. SENATE

Number of Senators: Election. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote. [Repealed in 1913 by Amendment XVII.]

Classification. Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class, at the expiration of the fourth year; of the third class, at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the executive¹ thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies. [Modified by Amendment XVII.]

Qualifications. No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

President of Senate. The Vice-President of the United States shall be president of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

Officers. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

Trials of Impeachment. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments: When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirma-

¹ Governor.

² The Speaker, who presides, is one of the representatives; the other officers — clerk, sergeant-at-arms, postmaster, chaplain, doorkeeper, etc. — are not.

tion. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief-Justice shall preside: and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

Judgment in Case of Conviction. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

SECTION 4. BOTH HOUSES

Manner of electing Members. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.¹

Meetings of Congress. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECTION 5. THE HOUSES SEPARATELY

Organization. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties, as each house may provide.

Rules. Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

Journal. Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy, and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Adjournment. Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

SECTION 6. PRIVILEGES AND DISABILITIES OF MEMBERS

Pay and Privileges of Members. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their

¹ This is to prevent Congress from fixing the places of meeting of the state legislatures.

attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

Prohibitions on Members. No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

SECTION 7. METHOD OF PASSING LAWS

Revenue Bills. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

How Bills become Laws. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Resolutions, etc. Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION 8. POWERS GRANTED TO CONGRESS

Powers of Congress. The Congress shall have power:

To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

To establish post-offices and post-roads;

To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations;

To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal,¹ and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

To provide and maintain a navy;

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions;

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States,² and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the Legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dockyards, and other needful buildings; — And

Implied Powers. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.³

¹ Letters granted by the government to private citizens in time of war, authorizing them, under certain conditions, to capture the ships of the enemy.

² The District of Columbia.

³ This is the famous elastic clause of the Constitution.

SECTION 9. POWERS FORBIDDEN TO THE UNITED STATES

Absolute Prohibitions on Congress. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.¹

The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus² shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

No bill of attainder³ or ex-post-facto law⁴ shall be passed.

No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken. [Extended by Amendment XVI.]

No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money shall be drawn from the treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

SECTION 10. POWERS FORBIDDEN TO THE STATES

Absolute Prohibitions on the States. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, ex-post-facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

Conditional Prohibitions on the States. No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net

¹ This refers to the foreign slave trade. "Persons" means "slaves." In 1808 Congress prohibited the importation of slaves. This clause is, of course, no longer in force.

² An official document requiring an accused person who is in prison awaiting trial to be brought into court to inquire whether he may be legally held.

³ A special legislative act by which a person may be condemned to death or to outlawry or banishment without the opportunity of defending himself which he would have in a court of law.

⁴ A law relating to the punishment of acts committed before the law was passed.

produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships-of-war, in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II. EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT

SECTION 1. PRESIDENT AND VICE-PRESIDENT

Term. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected, as follows:

Electors. Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

Proceedings of Electors and of Congress. [The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate. The president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said house shall, in like manner, choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice-President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice-President.]¹

¹ This paragraph in brackets has been superseded by the Twelfth Amendment.

Time of choosing Electors. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.¹

Qualifications of President. No person except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years resident within the United States.

Vacancy. In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President; and such officer shall act accordingly until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.²

Salary. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Oath. Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation: — "I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SECTION 2. POWERS OF THE PRESIDENT

Military Powers; Reprieves and Pardons. The President shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

Treaties; Appointments. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and

¹ The electors are chosen on the Tuesday next after the first Monday in November, preceding the expiration of a presidential term. They vote (by Act of Congress of February 3, 1887) on the second Monday in January for president and vice president. The votes are counted, and declared in Congress on the second Wednesday of the following February.

² This has now been provided for by the Presidential Succession Act of 1886.

consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law: but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

Filling of Vacancies. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECTION 3. DUTIES OF THE PRESIDENT

Message; Convening of Congress. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information¹ of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION 4. IMPEACHMENT

Removal of Officers. The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III. JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT

SECTION 1. UNITED STATES COURTS

Courts established; Judges. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

¹ The president gives this information through a message to Congress at the opening of each session. Washington and John Adams read their messages in person to Congress. Jefferson, however, sent a written message to Congress. This method was followed until President Wilson returned to the earlier custom.

SECTION 2. JURISDICTION OF UNITED STATES COURTS

Federal Courts in General. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; — to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls; — to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; — to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; — to controversies between two or more States; — between a State and citizens of another State¹; — between citizens of different States; — between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens or subjects.

Supreme Court. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

Trials. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION 3. TREASON

Treason defined. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort.

No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

Punishment. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV. RELATIONS OF THE STATES TO EACH OTHER

SECTION 1. OFFICIAL ACTS

Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

¹ This has been modified by the Eleventh Amendment.

SECTION 2. PRIVILEGES OF CITIZENS

The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

Fugitives from Justice. A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

Fugitive Slaves. No person¹ held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SECTION 3. NEW STATES AND TERRITORIES

Admission of States. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

Territory and Property of United States. The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SECTION 4. PROTECTION OF THE STATES

The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion, and on application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V. AMENDMENTS

How Proposed; how Ratified. The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the Legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either

¹ "Person" here includes slave. This was the basis of the fugitive-slave laws of 1793 and 1850. It is now superseded by the Thirteenth Amendment, by which slavery is prohibited.

case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI. GENERAL PROVISIONS

Public debt. All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

Supremacy of Constitution. This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

Official Oath; Religious Test. The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII. RATIFICATION OF THE CONSTITUTION

Ratification. The ratification of the Conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth.

In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.¹

GEORGE WASHINGTON,
President, and Deputy from Virginia.

¹ There were sixty-five delegates chosen to the convention: ten did not attend; sixteen declined or failed to sign; and thirty-nine signed. Rhode Island sent no delegates.

NEW HAMPSHIRE	PENNSYLVANIA	VIRGINIA
JOHN LANGDON	BENJAMIN FRANKLIN	JOHN BLAIR
NICHOLAS GILMAN	THOMAS MIFFLIN	JAMES MADISON, JR.
	ROBERT MORRIS	
MASSACHUSETTS	GEORGE CLYMER	
NATHANIEL GORHAM	THOMAS FITZSIMONS	NORTH CAROLINA
RUFUS KING	JARED INGERSOLL	WILLIAM BLOUNT
	JAMES WILSON	RICHARD DOBBS SPAIGHT
CONNECTICUT	GOVERNEUR MORRIS	HUGH WILLIAMSON
WILLIAM SAMUEL JOHNSON	DELAWARE	
ROGER SHERMAN	GEORGE READ	SOUTH CAROLINA
	GUNNING BEDFORD, JR.	JOHN RUTLEDGE
NEW YORK	JOHN DICKINSON	CHARLES C. PINCKNEY
ALEXANDER HAMILTON	RICHARD BASSETT	CHARLES PINCKNEY
	JACOB BROOM	PIERCE BUTLER
NEW JERSEY	MARYLAND	
WILLIAM LIVINGSTON	JAMES M'HENRY	GEORGIA
DAVID BREARLEY	DANIEL OF ST. THOMAS	WILLIAM FEW
WILLIAM PATERSON	JENIFER	ABRAHAM BALDWIN
JONATHAN DAYTON	DANIEL CARROLL	

Attest: WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary*

AMENDMENTS¹

Religion, Speech, Press, Assembly, Petition. ARTICLE I. Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for redress of grievances.

Militia. ARTICLE II. A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

Soldiers. ARTICLE III. No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner; nor in time of war but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

Unreasonable Searches. ARTICLE IV. The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches

¹ These amendments were proposed by Congress and ratified by the legislatures of the several states, pursuant to the fifth article of the Constitution. The first ten were offered in 1789 and adopted before the close of 1791. They were for the most part the work of Madison. They are frequently called the Bill of Rights, as their purpose is to guard more efficiently the rights of the people and of the states.

and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

Criminal Prosecutions. ARTICLE V. No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war and public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI. In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

Suits at Common Law. ARTICLE VII. In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise reëxamined in any court of the United States than according to the rules of common law.

Bail, Punishments. ARTICLE VIII. Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

Reserved Rights and Powers. ARTICLE IX. The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X. The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

Suits against States. ARTICLE XI.¹ The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against any of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

Method of electing President and Vice-President. ARTICLE XII.² The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate; —

¹ Proposed in 1794; adopted in 1798.

² Adopted in 1804.

the president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; — the person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President, shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

Slavery Abolished. ARTICLE XIII.¹ *Section 1.* Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

Section 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Negroes made Citizens. ARTICLE XIV.² *Section 1.* All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

Section 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive or judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of

¹ Adopted in 1865.

² Adopted in 1868.

the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

Section 3. No person shall be a senator or representative in Congress, or elector of President or Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each house, remove such disability.

Section 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

Section 5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

Negroes made Voters. ARTICLE XV.¹ *Section 1.* The rights of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

Section 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Income Tax. ARTICLE XVI.² The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes on incomes from whatever source derived, without apportionment among the several States, and without regard to any census or enumeration.

ARTICLE XVII.² The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, elected by the people thereof for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislatures.

Direct Election of Senators. When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the Senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies: Provided, that the Legislature of any State may empower the Executive thereof to make temporary appointments until the people fill the vacancies by election as the Legislature may direct.

This amendment shall not be so construed as to affect the election or term of any Senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution.

¹ Ratified in 1870.

² Ratified in 1913.

National Prohibition. ARTICLE XVIII.¹ *Section 1.* After one year from the ratification of this article the manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors within, the importation thereof into, or the exportation thereof from the United States and all territory subject to the jurisdiction thereof for beverage purposes is hereby prohibited.

Section 2. The Congress and the several States shall have concurrent power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Section 3. This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by the Legislatures of the several States, as provided in the Constitution, within seven years from the date of the submission hereof to the States by the Congress.

Woman Suffrage. ARTICLE XIX.² *Section 1.* The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex.

Section 2. Congress shall have power, by appropriate legislation, to enforce the provisions of this article.

VOTE IN THE STATES ON RATIFICATION OF THE CONSTITUTION

STATE	FOR	AGAINST	DATE
1. Delaware	Unanimously		Dec. 7, 1787
2. Pennsylvania	43	23	Dec. 12, 1787
3. New Jersey	Unanimously		Dec. 18, 1787
4. Georgia	Unanimously		Jan. 2, 1788
5. Connecticut	128	40	Jan. 9, 1788
6. Massachusetts	187	168	Feb. 6, 1788
7. Maryland	63	11	Apr. 28, 1788
8. South Carolina	149	73	May 23, 1788
9. New Hampshire	57	46	June 21, 1788
10. Virginia	89	79	June 25, 1788
11. New York	30	27	July 26, 1788
12. North Carolina	194	77	Nov. 21, 1789
13. Rhode Island	34	32	May 29, 1790

¹ Ratified in 1919.

² Ratified in 1920.

APPENDIX C. INTERESTING FACTS ABOUT OUR PRESIDENTS

No.	NAME	LENGTH AND DATES OF SERVICE	AGE WHEN SERVICE BEGAN	YEAR BORN	YEAR OF DEATH	OCCUPA- TION OR VOCATION	STATE FROM WHICH ELECTED	BURIAL PLACE
1	George Washington . . .	Two terms, 1789-1797	57	1732	1799	Planter	Virginia	Mount Vernon, Va.
2	John Adams	One term, 1797-1801	61	1735	1826	Lawyer	Massachusetts	Quincy, Mass.
3	Thomas Jefferson . . .	Two terms, 1801-1809	57	1743	1826	Planter	Virginia	Monticello, Va.
4	James Madison	Two terms, 1809-1817	57	1751	1836	Lawyer	Virginia	Montpelier, Va.
5	James Monroe	Two terms, 1817-1825	58	1758	1831	Lawyer	Virginia	Richmond, Va.
6	John Quincy Adams . .	One term, 1825-1829	57	1767	1848	Lawyer	Massachusetts	Quincy, Mass.
7	Andrew Jackson	Two terms, 1829-1837	61	1767	1845	Lawyer	Tennessee	Hermitage, Nash- ville, Tenn.
8	Martin Van Buren . . .	One term, 1837-1841	54	1782	1862	Lawyer	New York	Kinderhook, N. Y.
9	William Henry Harrison .	1 mo., March 4-April 4, 1841	68	1773	1841	Farmer	Ohio	North Bend, Ohio
10	John Tyler	3 yr., 11 mo., 1841-1845	51	1790	1862	Lawyer	Virginia	Richmond, Va.
11	James K. Polk	One term, 1845-1849	49	1795	1849	Lawyer	Tennessee	Nashville, Tenn.
12	Zachary Taylor	1 yr., 4 mo., 5 da., 1849-1850	64	1784	1850	Soldier	Louisiana	Springfield, Ky.
13	Millard Fillmore	2 yr., 7 mo., 25 da., 1850-1853	50	1800	1874	Lawyer	New York	Buffalo, N. Y.
14	Franklin Pierce	One term, 1853-1857	48	1804	1869	Lawyer	New Hampshire	Concord, N. H.
15	James Buchanan	One term, 1857-1861	65	1791	1868	Lawyer	Pennsylvania	Lancaster, Pa.
16	Abraham Lincoln	One term, 1 mo., 10 da., 1861- 1865	52	1809	1865	Lawyer	Illinois	Springfield, Ill.
17	Andrew Johnson	3 yr., 10 mo., 20 da., 1865-1869	56	1808	1875	Tailor	Tennessee	Greenville, Tenn.
18	Ulysses S. Grant	Two terms, 1869-1877	46	1822	1885	Soldier	Illinois	New York, N. Y.
19	Rutherford B. Hayes . .	One term, 1877-1881	54	1822	1893	Lawyer	Ohio	Fremont, Ohio
20	James A. Garfield	6 mo., 15 da., 1881	49	1831	1881	Lawyer	Ohio	Cleveland, Ohio
21	Chester A. Arthur	3 yr., 5 mo., 15 da., 1881-1885	50	1830	1886	Lawyer	New York	Albany, N. Y.
22	Grover Cleveland	One term, 1885-1889	47	1837	1908	Lawyer	New York	Princeton, N. J.
23	Benjamin Harrison . . .	One term, 1889-1893	55	1833	1901	Lawyer	Indiana	Indianapolis, Ind.
24	Grover Cleveland	One term, 1893-1897	55	1837	1908	Lawyer	New York	Princeton, N. J.
25	William McKinley	4 yr., 6 mo., 10 da., 1897-1901	54	1843	1901	Lawyer	Ohio	Canton, Ohio
26	Theodore Roosevelt . . .	7 yr., 5 mo., 18 da., 1901-1909	42	1858	1919	Author	New York	Oyster Bay, N. Y.
27	William H. Taft	One term, 1909-1913	51	1857	—	Lawyer	Ohio	—
28	Woodrow Wilson	Two terms, 1913-1921	56	1856	1924	Educator	New Jersey	Washington, D. C.
29	Warren G. Harding	2 yr., 4 mo., 29 da., 1921-1923	56	1865	1923	Editor	Ohio	Marion, Ohio
30	Calvin Coolidge	Serving	51	1872	—	Lawyer	Massachusetts	—

APPENDIX D. INTERESTING FACTS ABOUT THE STATES

	NAME	YEAR OF ADMISSION	AREA IN SQUARE MILES	POPULATION IN 1920	WELL-KNOWN NICKNAME	OFFICIALLY ADOPTED OR COMMONLY AC- CEPTED FLOWER	MOTTO
1	Alabama	1819	51,998	2,348,174	Cotton State	Goldenrod	Here we rest
2	Arizona	1912	113,956	334,162	Apache State	Sahuaro cactus	<i>Ditat Deus</i> (God enriches)
3	Arkansas	1836	53,335	1,752,204	Bear State	Apple blossom	<i>Regnant populi</i> (The people rule)
4	California	1850	158,297	3,426,861	Golden State	Golden poppy	<i>Eureka</i> (I have found it)
5	Colorado	1876	103,498	939,629	Centennial State	Columbine	<i>Nil sine numine</i> (Nothing without Providence)
6	Connecticut	1788	4,965	1,380,631	Nutmeg State	Mountain laurel	<i>Qui transiit suscitnet</i> (Who transplanted sustains)
7	Delaware	1787	2,370	223,003	Blue Hen State	Peach blossom	Liberty and independence
8	Florida	1845	58,666	968,470	Peninsula State	Orange blossom	In God we trust
9	Georgia	1788	59,265	2,895,832	Cracker State	Cherokee rose	Wisdom, justice, moderation
10	Idaho	1890	83,888	431,866	Gem State	Syringa	<i>Esio perpetua</i> (May it be perpetual)
11	Illinois	1818	56,665	6,485,280	Prairie or Sucker State	Wood violet	State sovereignty, national union
12	Indiana	1816	36,354	2,930,390	Hoosier State	Carnation	No motto
13	Iowa	1846	56,147	2,404,021	Hawkeye State	Wild rose	Our liberties we prize and our rights we will maintain
14	Kansas	1861	82,158	1,769,257	Sunflower State	Sunflower	<i>Ad astra per aspera</i> (To the stars through difficulties)
15	Kentucky	1792	40,598	2,416,630	Blue Grass State	Trumpet vine	United we stand, divided we fall
16	Louisiana	1812	48,506	1,798,509	Pelican State	Magnolia	Union, justice, confidence
17	Maine	1820	33,040	768,014	Pine Tree State	Pine cone	<i>Dirigo</i> (I direct)
18	Maryland	1788	12,327	1,449,661	Old Line State	Black-eyed Susan	<i>Falli masculii, parole femine</i> (Deeds are men's; words are women's)
19	Massachusetts	1788	8,266	3,852,356	Bay State	Mayflower	<i>Ense petit placidam sub libertate quietem</i> (By the sword she seeks repose settled under liberty)
20	Michigan	1837	57,980	3,668,412	Wolverine State	Apple blossom	<i>Si quaeris peninsulam amoenam, circumspecte</i> (If you seek a delightful peninsula look about you)
21	Minnesota	1858	84,682	2,387,125	Gopher State	Moccasin flower	<i>L'étoile du nord</i> (Star of the north)
22	Mississippi	1817	46,856	1,790,618		Magnolia	<i>Virtute et armis</i> (By valor and arms)
23	Missouri	1821	69,420	3,404,055	Show Me State	Hawthorn	<i>Salus populi suprema lex esto</i> (Let the people's safety be the supreme law)

INTERESTING FACTS ABOUT THE STATES (CONTINUED)

24	Montana . . .	1889	146,997	548,889	Treasure State	Bitterroot	<i>Oro y plata</i> (Gold and silver)
25	Nebraska . . .	1867	77,520	1,296,372	Cornhusker State	Goldenrod	Equality before the law
26	Nevada . . .	1864	110,690	77,407	Silver State	Sagebrush	All for our country
27	New Hampshire . . .	1788	9,341	443,083	Granite State	Purple lilac	(No motto)
28	New Jersey . . .	1787	8,224	3,155,900	Garden State	Violet	Liberty and prosperity
29	New Mexico . . .	1912	122,634	360,350	Sunshine State	Cactus	<i>Crescit eundo</i> (It increases as it advances)
30	New York . . .	1788	49,204	10,385,227	Empire State	Rose	<i>Excelsior</i> (Higher)
31	North Carolina . . .	1789	52,426	2,539,123	Old North State	Goldenrod	<i>Esse quam videri</i> (To be rather than to seem)
32	North Dakota . . .	1889	70,837	646,872	Flickertail State	Wild prairie rose	Liberty and union, now and forever, one and inseparable
33	Ohio	1803	41,040	5,759,394	Buckeye State	Scarlet carnation	<i>Imperium in imperio</i> (An empire within an empire)
34	Oklahoma	1907	70,057	2,028,283	Sooner State	Mistletoe	<i>Labor omnia vincit</i> (Labor conquers all things)
35	Oregon	1859	96,699	783,389	Beaver State	Oregon grape	The union
36	Pennsylvania . . .	1787	45,126	8,720,017	Keystone State	(No choice)	Virtue, liberty, and independence
37	Rhode Island . . .	1790	1,248	604,397	Little Rhody	Violet	Hope
38	South Carolina . .	1788	30,989	1,683,724	Palmetto State	Yellow jessamine	<i>Animis opibusque parati</i> (Ready in soul and resource), and <i>Dum spiro spero</i> (While I breathe I hope)
39	South Dakota . . .	1889	77,615	636,547	Sunshine State	Pasque flower	Under God the people rule
40	Tennessee	1796	42,022	2,337,885	Volunteer State	Passion flower	Agriculture, commerce
41	Texas	1845	265,896	4,663,228	Lone Star State	Bluebonnet	No official motto; "Texas — one and indivisible" is sometimes used
42	Utah	1896	84,990	449,396	Deseret	Sego lily	Industry
43	Vermont	1791	9,564	352,428	Green Mountain State	Red clover	Freedom and unity
44	Virginia	1788	42,627	2,309,187	The Old Dominion	American dogwood	<i>Sic semper tyrannis</i> (Thus ever to tyrants)
45	Washington	1889	69,127	1,356,621	Evergreen State	Rhododendron	<i>Ai-ki</i> (By and by)
46	West Virginia . . .	1863	24,170	1,463,701	The Panhandle State	Rhododendron	<i>Montani semper liberi</i> (Mountaineers are always free)
47	Wisconsin	1848	56,066	2,632,067	Badger State	Violet	Forward
48	Wyoming	1890	97,914	194,402	Equality State	Indian paintbrush	<i>Cedant arma togæ</i> (Let arms yield to the gown)

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KEY. ä as in fät; ā as in fâte; ă as in ârm; ą as in sofa; ě as in mět; ě as in mēte; ı as in ıt; ĩ as in ĩce; ò as in nôt; ô as in nôte; ô as in hôrse; oi as in oil; öö as in fööt; öö as in fööd; ŭ as in ŭp; ū as in ūse; ū as in ūrn; ŷ as in stirrup; th as in bathe

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